The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 1, 1894.

The Week.

THE resolution adopted by the judiciary committee of the House respecting Secretary Carlisle's issue of bonds, does not question, but on the contrary concedes, the secretary's right to issue bonds under the act of 1875. It questions only his right to use the money so obtained for other purposes than the redemption of United States notes. The resolution is in these words:

"Resolved, That it is the sense of the House of Representatives that the secretary of the treasury has no authority, under existing law, to issue and sell the bonds of the United States, except such as is conferred upon him by the act approved January 14, 1875, entitled 'An act to provide for the resumption of specie payments,' and that the money derived from the sale of bonds issued under that act cannot be lawfully applied to any purposes except those specified therein."

This is a very different thing from questioning the secretary's legal power to issue bonds. What he shall do with the money after he gets it, is of no concern to those who subscribe for the bonds. Their holdings are good in any case. We think that the committee might be in much better business than airing their opinions in this futile way. It would be more statesmanlike to report a bill forbidding the use of the money for ordinary expenses than to pass a resolution—a mere *brutum fulmen*—expressing their private opinion on the subject.

The meeting between the secretary and the leading bankers of this city was held for the purpose of enabling the secretary to explain the legal points that had been raised by the House judiciary committee and by the injunction suit brought by the Knights of Labor (since thrown out by the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia). Incidentally the fact was brought out that the bankers of this city had not subscribed for the new loan to any considerable extent, because they did not like to pay the large premium, amounting to over 17 per cent., which subscribers must pay under the terms of the circular. Another fact was made clear, that the bankers did not see any reason for putting in bids until the last moment, since all bids stand on an equality at the time of opening. Naturally everybody who wants any bonds desires to obtain them at the lowest price. What the lowest price is cannot be known till about the time of closing. Although nobody has a right to see the bids until they are opened, a pretty good opinion can be formed as to the average price by anybody who has a considerable interest in finding out. That the holding back of the New York bankers signified nothing except a natural desire to get bonds at the lowest rates possible under the terms of the circular, was shown by their subscription for $30,000,000 on Tuesday.

The secretary has ample power to get all the money he wants. If the loan is not taken at 117.223, he has only to advertise again at a lower rate. He can sell his 5 per cent. ten-year bonds at par if he cannot get better rates, and it will be his duty to do so. It will be his duty, also, in our judgment, to give all subscribers an equal chance to bid. This rule is of more importance than the price at which the bonds are taken, and it is only by the observance of the rule that the secretary can escape criticism from the anti-bank party in Congress. Granted that such criticism would be without foundation, nevertheless it has great influence on the politics of the country. Any secretary of the treasury will reckon ill who leaves it out of his calculations. Especially at this time, when there is such a ravenous demand in certain quarters for "coining the seigniorage," would it be dangerous to offer to Mr. Bland and his pack any fresh occasion to give tongue against the banks.

Senator Jones takes this occasion to place a headstone at the grave of free silver, in the shape of his seven days' speech of last October, now for the first time published in the *Congressional Record*. Having been one day longer about it than the heavens and the earth were in creating, its bulk is correspondingly large. After one hundred two-columned pages the Senator perorated, closing with an elegant poetical extract, stating,

"And *this is all* that the watcher said."

We may well be thankful that he stopped when he did, though we suspect that the reason for it was much the same as in the case of the Scotch preacher who said, "But, my brethren, I will not dwell longer on this subject," only to hear a shrill voice from the gallery, from a woman who did not approve of written sermons, "Ye canna, for your paper's rin out."

In the debate on the coal tariff in the House the Republicans and a few Democrats took the position that it is best for the country to get rid of its coal supplies as rapidly as possible, by preventing any other coal from coming in. Yet all these people know that the coal deposits of every country are limited in amount, and that, when exhausted, they cannot be replaced. Competent geologists have estimated the supply of the United States from known deposits at not much over one hundred years at the progressive rate of consumption which has taken place in the past, while that of Great Britain is reckoned at not more than fifty years. Now, what is to be said of the intelligence of those who cry out against the introduction of Nova Scotia coal into the New England States, and who insist that the deposits of Pennsylvania and Maryland shall be drawn upon not only to supply those States, but also to haul the coal to them? Every car-load of coal hauled requires the consumption of a certain percentage of the load in order to move it. If the same amount of coal can be obtained without this waste, we are the gainers. It is, moreover, an advantage to us to burn the coal of other countries rather than our own. Both sources of supply will be exhausted all too soon. The talk we hear about inexhaustible supplies of fuel is perilous nonsense. There are hundreds of empty holes in the ground which were heralded as inexhaustible mines in flattering prospectuses during the present generation. The time is coming when protectionists as fatuous as Mr. Walker of Massachusetts will be glad to have coal fall from the moon, and will not consider such acquisitions an injury to the country. We observe that this antediluvian voted for seventy-five cents per ton duty on coal in order to make the tariff fair and square.

The *Iron Age* publishes a chart showing the fluctuations in the prices of copper, lead, spelter, and tin plate from 1889 to 1893 inclusive. It is interesting to note that while there has been a considerable decline in the prices of metals generally, the price of tin plate holds the advance which was caused by the McKinley bill. It has been falsely asserted several times, since the Wilson bill has been under discussion, that we are paying no more for our tin plates than we did before that bill went into effect. The chart of the *Iron Age* shows that the advance in tin plates commenced in May, 1890, when it seemed likely that the McKinley bill might become law, and that it has continued to the present time with a few fluctuations. Had it not been for the McKinley bill, tin plates would have followed the decline of iron, steel, and pig tin abroad. It has been demonstrated also that the foreigner does not pay the duty on pig tin. The McKinley duty on this article went into effect July 1, 1893. The market price of pig tin here is exactly four cents per pound higher than in London, this being just the amount of the McKinley duty.

One of the strongest objections to the income tax is that its ulterior motive

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does not appear in the bill and is never stated in debate by its advocates As a general rule, taxes which have any object in view except getting money for the Government are iniquitous. The exceptions, such as liquor licenses and the tax on State bank bills, all have their aim and end openly avowed. As regards the income tax, there is no doubt that it is an attempt on the part of the South and West to put on the people of the Northeast more than their share of the public burdens. It is in this section that the people with more than $4,000 annual income most abound, and the South and West want to punish them for being in comfortable circumstances. This is the first time in American history that an attempt of this sort has been made—that is, that Congress has proposed to tax one section at the instigation of others; and it would be difficult to conceive of a more dangerous precedent just now. Moreover, the class with incomes over $4,000 is a small class, and no reason for marking it off for punishment has ever been given. The millionaires in it are very few in number. The great bulk of it consists of persons in very moderate circumstances who have a hard struggle to educate their children and make ends meet.

There is only one excuse for this attempt at sectional taxation on the part of the South, and that is the pension laws. These same laws were also largely answerable for the adhesion of the South to the silver purchases. For thirty years we have gone on pouring money out of the Treasury by tens of millions of dollars to be spent in one part of the country only. Hardly a dollar of this goes into the South. This year, in the midst of our sorrow and suffering, we are paying out $160,000,000 on account of a war which came to an end thirty years ago. This is dispensed in cash and in small sums, and none, or next to none, of it reaches the Southern States properly so called. We are within the mark when we say that $1,500,000,000 have been spent in this way since the close of the civil war. This would be very unfortunate from a financial point of view, even if the money all came out of Northern pockets; but besides getting none of it, the South has had, and has, to contribute to it. The Southerners who got up the war and fought it out are mostly dead or superannuated. It is their sons and grandsons who now constitute the South with which we have to deal, and they would be more or less than human if, having got the power of legislation in their hands, they did not try to get a whack at the people who have imposed on them such intolerable burdens. But they are none the less very foolish, for they are going to insure the return to power next fall of the party which concocted and maintains the pension swindle. A clearer case of biting off one's own nose we have seldom heard of.

Apparently the question of Mr. Peckham's confirmation rests largely with the Republican Senators. Hill hopes to get a number of the Democratic Bourbons, under the lead of Pugh of Alabama, to stand with him in opposition, but he cannot hope to succeed unless a majority of the Republicans come to his rescue. His sole reliance is the chance that "Bill" Chandler and his kind can persuade Republicans generally that it would be "good politics" to reject an eminently well-qualified nominee in order to foster dissensions in the Democratic party. But Republican Senators who may be disposed to take so low a view of their duty are likely to find out, before the vote is taken, that their rejection of Mr. Peckham would be the worst possible politics for their own party. It is reported that the President will send no more nominations for office to the Senate until the vacancy on the Supreme bench has been filled. This is exactly right. The issue is whether the Senate shall usurp the appointing power, whether "the courtesy of the Senate" shall override the Constitution of the United States. There can be no compromise of such an issue, and there should be no complication of other questions with it. Everything else should wait until the Hills and the Chandlers of the two parties surrender.

The *World* has had the happy thought of resurrecting an interview with Hill eight years ago, in which he denounced most vigorously precisely such a policy as he is himself now pursuing. It was at the time when Mr. Cleveland was having his struggle with the Senate over the papers on which he based removals of old officials and the appointment of new ones, and Hill sustained the President's attitude as entirely right. Among other things which he then said of the confirming power that apply excellently to the present situation, was the following:

> "It does not reject bad men. It rejects good men to keep bad men in. It does not work as a help or enlightenment to the President or Governor. It works as a ball-and-chain on both. It makes in the Federal Senate a series of as many Presidents *in petto* as there are representatives of States in that body. It makes Senators office-brokers and executives the bondsmen of such office-brokers. Senators claim in effect to be assistant presidents and assistant governors, and seek to make elected presidents and elected governors subject to them."

Mr. James Schouler, the well-known historian of the United States, reviews the Hawaiian controversy in the February *Forum*. His conclusions only show how unfit are the methods of historical investigation in such a matter. What weight can be attached to the opinions of a man who writes about Hawaii without once calling it a "key" or a "cross-roads," and who has a deplorable way of pinning himself and his opponents down to the evidence? The fact that distinguished lawyers like Judge Cooley and Mr. Coudert pronounce the legal evidence against Stevens complete, and that a distinguished historian like Mr. Schouler now declares the historical evidence also complete, only proves how little true patriotism has to do with either law or history.

The conference on municipal government, which came to a close on Friday in Philadelphia, drew out a remarkable number of well-written papers. It cannot be said to have thrown any very new light on the problem of municipal reform, but it was invaluable as a means of rousing and extending interest on the subject among those who think about municipal reform at all. Ten years ago, nay, five years ago, no such gathering would have been possible. The class of people who spoke at and attended the meetings this week were not then giving thought to the government of our great cities. They were occupied with temperance, or charity, or civil-service reform, or the tariff. That American cities could be better governed, and that it was necessary to try to get them better governed, was something which had not occurred to them. It was noteworthy, too, that in the discussion very little, in fact no, attention was bestowed on charters or distribution of powers. Nearly every address was devoted to the best means of bringing influence to bear on the voters in favor of better city government. The fact is that we have in Brooklyn to-day a charter which nearly all critics and observers are agreed is the kind of charter which is best adapted to our present needs in all the large cities, inasmuch as it puts good government almost immediately within reach of the voter if he elects a good mayor, and enables him to concentrate his attention on the mayor's character and career. The work to be done now is mainly work of evangelization, or missionary work. It is to convince people, as the preachers say, of the sin and discomfort of our present situation, and point out to them the way of salvation.

One of the speakers, Mr. Edwin D. Mead of Boston, discoursing on Friday on the theme of education as a means of "arousing public sentiment in favor of good city government," made a curious slip. In the course of an excellent address, speaking of the press as a means, indeed the chief means, of public education, and deploring the frightful appearance the morning papers presented on that day by giving four times as much space to the Florida prize-fight as to all other subjects of public interest, with as much disgusting "display" as

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their columns would allow, he proceeded instantly to mention the Boston *Herald* as a model newspaper, which stood above all its fellows as a public instructor. The fact is, that the *Herald* is one of the worst purveyors of corrupting and degrading intelligence the country contains, in spite of the general excellence of its editorial matter and correspondence. It was only a year ago that it defended its reports of prize-fights, on the ground that it was bound to publish everything the public wanted or would pay for, because, as it said, it satisfied "an element in human nature." And while Mr. Mead was speaking, it was giving eight columns to the Florida prize-fight, beginning with two on the first page, containing a half-naked portrait of the victor and a smaller one of the other ruffian. Worse reading than those eight columns were, or less likely to predispose people towards good city government or any good thing in city life, we have never happened to see. Nothing, let us add, does so much to keep alive the faults of the press as this thoughtless sort of praise in which good people like Mr. Mead indulge. They revile the press fiercely in private conversation, but you find the worst papers in the land on their tables at home, and when, on any public occasion, they are afraid of them or want a "notice" or report, it is well if they do not praise them to the skies.

The anti-machine Republicans, with a fluency which must once more impress Mr. Cornelius N. Bliss as objectionable, have issued another very long address to the public, which was published in full in the *Tribune*. We find in it many revelations of party secrets which have heretofore been regarded as the sacred property of the family circle. In calculating the expense which the new organization, adopted by the Boys at the suggestion of Messrs. Bliss and Root, will entail, the address says it will aggregate $100,000 a year for rentals alone, and about $30,000 more for furnishing. In regard to the headquarters for each of the 1,187 election districts the address speaks in this shocking manner: "There are not enough Republican liquor-saloons to-day to provide for one-fourth of these places; indeed, there are whole Assembly districts where there is not a single Republican saloon-keeper." This is a direct intimation that the Republican liquor-saloon is to be the centre of activity and common meeting-place of the reformed Republican machine. Nothing so startling has been revealed concerning the Republican party since the memorable telegram of the Hon. Shed Shook to the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, sent from Albany a few years ago, while an excise bill was pending, announcing that the bill had been so amended as to "give to Republican saloon-keepers the protection to which they are entitled." The *Tribune* never published that revelation, but it gives full publicity to its fellow now. Scarcely less startling is this slighting allusion to the Union League Club's contributory habits: "Will the Union League respond to the call? It did not raise $2,500 during the last campaign; its contributions to all the State campaigns of late years have been on a par with its efforts last fall." Even more impertinent is the following: "Why are not the voters in the different election districts as competent to handle their affairs as the sleek, well-fed members of the Union League Club?" We refrain from comment on these revelations and queries, following the discreet policy of the *Tribune* towards them, but we should think that the publication of such extremely inharmonious and inflammatory matter in the *Tribune* would impair its editor's standing as a good party man.

The *Forum* for February contains two contributions upon the gold question which are of great interest. In one of them Mr. Edward Atkinson gives the silver advocates and bimetallists several things to think about in their retirement. He points out that international commerce has adjusted itself to a unit or standard of value which is expressed in terms of gold because experience has shown it to be the safest, surest, and best standard attainable, because a unit of gold or its multiples will buy anything anywhere, because it is the only medium by which each and every debt in every civilized country can be liquidated, and because it will be maintained as a standard for the same reasons that brought it into use, without regard to legislation, treaty, or agreement. The folly of the United States departing from such a standard would be incomparable, for, as Mr. Atkinson shows, we are to a greater extent than any other nation the creditor nation of the world. We buy from other countries such articles as we could, to a very large extent, spare. The products which we sell are, almost to the full extent of our exports, products which the world cannot spare. Hence it follows that, having established the prices of our grain, our provisions, our oil, and our cotton upon the gold standard, for which we annually become creditor in such manner that the price of the whole domestic product rests on or is established by the price at which we export our excess, we hold a check payable on demand in gold or its equivalent on every bank or banker in Europe. If now we were to negotiate a bimetallic treaty, giving other nations an option to pay us in gold or silver, at an arbitrary ratio, we should wholly lose the advantage of our position. "We should," says Mr. Atkinson, "throw away our paramount supremacy, because the very essence of a bimetallic act of legal tender is to give the debtor a choice of which the creditor is deprived."

Scarcely less instructive than Mr. Atkinson's article, of which we have given a very incomplete outline, is another in the same *Forum*, from the pen of Mr. J. F. Fraenkel, on the erstwhile absorbing question of a scarcity of gold. Mr. Fraenkel goes over the statistics of gold production in the past, and gives the latest information about the renewed activity in the gold-mining regions of this and other countries, showing very clearly that there is certain to be a large increase in the output of the world for the year just closed and for following years. His estimate for 1893 is $148,000,000, or an increase of $10,000,000 over 1892. The amount of gold available for monetary uses in 1892 was $63,000,000, and Mr. Fraenkel's conclusion is that "it is not impossible that in a few years a quantity of gold not far from $100,000,000" will be available for such uses, adding: "If this should prove true, it would seem futile to speak of an impending scarcity of gold." We have been listening very intently for some weeks, and have not heard anybody prophesying such a calamity.

Although we cannot predict what will be the results of King Milan's sudden and theatrical return to Servia, it is safe to say that they are not likely to be for the good of the country or the peace of Europe. His ex-Majesty is pretty sure to make mischief whenever he has a chance. After long troubles, the Servians were to be congratulated on having got rid of a sovereign whose life, public and private alike, has been shameful, and whose one great merit was his readiness to divest himself of his divine rights and take compensation in hard cash. When one has a few million francs in one's pocket, Paris is doubtless a far pleasanter home than Belgrade, and the society of the Jockey Club more congenial than the eternal squabbles of politicians on the vital question of the ins and the outs. It may be, however, that Milan's money has given out—as has happened to him before—or that Paris is dull this winter; or it may be that he feels his son needs fatherly advice in the midst of confusion which even he can hardly make worse confounded. He has, therefore, gone back to Belgrade, where his chief support seems to be an army that he has led only to disgraceful defeat. Nothing could be more wearisome than recent Servian history, with its ceaseless and senseless cabinet changes; nothing less important in itself. The appalling element in the situation is the fact that the condition of the Eastern question, and of the relations between the great powers, makes it always possible that the antics of some irresponsible person or party may bring on the most terrible war in the history of mankind.

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AFTER-PANIC BANKING.

THE comptroller of the currency has published an abstract of the reports made to him by all the national banks in the country on December 19, 1893. These figures are interesting in themselves, because the statements of so large a number of banks—3,787 in this case—give a trustworthy view of the general business situation. But they are still more interesting when compared with last summer's statements, for this comparison shows the real working of the panic on the money depositories, and the not less interesting after-panic accumulation of idle money in the banks.

The combined statement of the national banks in December, 1892, may be called the last which reflects normal conditions. Before the next statement—that of March, 1893—had been compiled, trouble was already in sight, depositors were beginning to hoard money, and interior banks were calling in their Eastern balances. On the 9th of December, 1892, the individual deposits of our national banks aggregated $1,764,456,177. The statement issued nearest to the extreme panic strain was that of July 12. That statement showed the shrinkage in individual deposits to $1,556,761,230. The withdrawal of deposits in the critical distress of August was undoubtedly much heavier; for as late as October 3, the date of the next report, the total of individual deposits remained as low as $1,451,124,330. Although no official figures are obtainable at that date, it may be guessed that in August, before the gold-import movement had fairly begun, the private-deposit fund of all the banks had sunk quite as low as $1,300,000,000.

Last month's statement reports the total holdings on this account at $1,539,399,795, which, it will be observed, is a sum materially smaller than that returned in the middle of last July. It does not, however, by any means follow that the hoarding craze was still in force during December. On the contrary, the actual money reserves of the banks show an amazing increase. A year ago the total coin and paper money held by the national banks was $318,641,595. In July these reserves had sunk to $289,254,850. In August they certainly went much lower. Yet on December 19, 1893, the aggregate was no less than $414,135,407. In other words, during the five months between July and December the net gain in the money holdings of the national banks was fully 70 per cent. Of the gain during this interval, $60,000,000 represents the increase in legal-tender Government notes alone.

Not all this increase in cash holdings of banks since the panic month represents hoarded money now returned to circulation. The fifty millions gold imported from Europe since the opening of August has now found a resting-place in bank reserves. The Government has paid out large amounts—about $41,000,000—since July, chiefly in gold, and between July and November, before the Sherman law's repeal, there was issued $5,000,000 in new Treasury notes. Moreover, the savings banks and trust companies have not only returned their bank deposits withdrawn in the panic months, but have deposited a total balance larger than that of a year ago. The recent January report of the trust companies of this city showed their uninvested cash, much of which is deposited with national banks, to be $30,000,000 greater than at the opening of 1893, and the same is true in a less degree in other cities where the industrial and security markets are idle. It should be remembered, however, that actual hoarding of money by private individuals is the single cause of trust-company withdrawals; so that, allowing $90,000,000 for the inflow of money, these last five months, from Washington and from Europe, there is still left $25,000,000 for the increase from other quarters since last July. This amount is probably not far from the total sum, naturally held in national-bank reserves, which was hidden away in actual cash by hoarders during the panic.

A different cause must be sought for the fact that the total of individual deposits in all the national banks was smaller by $17,000,000 last month than it was in last July. The deposit fund in banks is not only used as a basis for loans, it is also very largely the result of loans. When a bank lends a thousand dollars to a customer, it does so by adding that thousand to the deposit fund inscribed to his credit. He may, of course, withdraw this deposit through checks deposited in other national banks, or even in outside institutions. But, in the long run, increase in loans causes a nearly corresponding increase in deposits.

Now the loan account of the banks, after the panic strain had ceased, showed nothing but continued liquidation. During the panic, loans were fairly maintained by the heavy issue of that emergency bank currency known as clearing-house certificates. The panic over, the cancellation of these certificates began at once, and it was, of course, effected by the calling in of loans. This special motive for contraction ceased when the last loan certificate was retired in November. But trade had by that time fallen completely into its after-panic stagnation, and at the very moment when money began again to roll in to bank reserves, the demand from business borrowers had almost ceased. The total loans and discounts outstanding December 19 last to the credit of the national banks was $151,000,000 less than the total on the 12th of last July. This tells its own story.

A word may be added as to the New York city banks. Under the national-bank act, a country bank, though required to hold in cash 15 per cent. reserve against deposits, may itself at its discretion deposit three-fifths of this reserve with banks in certain large cities named in the statute. Of these "reserve cities" New York is the favorite, because its banks habitually allow to other institutions 2 per cent. on their deposits. During the panic not only were local deposits withdrawn from New York city banks, but the hard-pressed country institutions called back their deposited reserves. As a result, deposits in the New York clearing-house banks sank in August to $370,000,000, or seventy millions less than at the opening of the year. In September the tide turned. Private depositors returned their money to the banks; local institutions followed suit; and finally the interior banks, finding no use at home for their now ample cash reserves, hastened to forward the money for deposit at New York, where it might get the 2 per cent. interest. The result is striking, but hardly profitable to the New York banks. Last Saturday's statement showed that total deposits in our city clearing-house banks had increased $177,000,000 since the August panic season, that the actual money holdings of these banks had increased three-fold, and yet that the loans had increased barely twelve millions. In other words, there is to-day in the banks of New York city a deposit fund of $547,694,400, much of it bearing interest to depositors, and of this sum $129,000,000 is not in use at all.

ONE PHASE OF THE TARIFF.

THE debate in Congress on the Wilson tariff bill on Wednesday week turned in part on the question whether our protected manufacturers sell goods to foreigners at lower rates than to Americans. Upon this Mr. De Witt Warner made some very pointed remarks. Several Republican members having controverted the statements in one of the publications of the Reform Club, Mr. Warner said:

"That pamphlet of the Reform Club was made up under my personal direction, and I stand ready to vouch for every quotation in it, and for the fact that the comparative figures given are for identically the same article, from identically the same lot, the wholesale price, with all discounts deducted. The fact is, that if you go to a store and buy the goods and let the manufacturer deliver them himself aboard the ship, so that he can be sure they are really for export, you get one price, and if you buy the goods to be delivered to you, and therefore, perhaps, to go into the home market, you have to pay a much higher price. For two years I was in correspondence on this matter with agents and dealers all over the world, and there is not a statement in the pamphlet of the correctness of which the documentary evidence was not on file before the book was published. There is not a single figure in it that has ever been successfully refuted, or that any one has ever claimed successfully to have refuted. In very many cases the correctness of the figures is verified by the written confessions of the manufacturers themselves. This sort of business still continues, and it will continue as long as the protective tariff makes it possible."

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This phase of the tariff is not in the least a matter for surprise. The Republicans ought to defend the practice instead of denying its existence. Some of them, in former debates, have defended it, saying that it is a gain to the country to sell abroad the surplus of production, even if the profit is very small, since it is a question of little profit or none. This argument is intelligible, and, what is more to the purpose, it conforms to the facts. Take a case lately cited in the *Evening Post* by Mr. A. H. Saxton, a well-known hardware-dealer in this city. The manufacturers of cut tacks have had the American market to themselves for more than half a century, under every kind of a tariff—under the Walker tariff, the Morrill tariff, and the McKinley tariff. They exported their products to Australia and elsewhere as long ago as 1860, and are doing so still. Recently Mr. Saxton had occasion to inquire what were the foreign prices of these goods. He found that the American duties on tacks were equal to 105 per cent. ad valorem, and that the domestic price was within 10 per cent. of what the foreign ones would cost with the duty added, "so that while cut tacks can be exported in competition with the foreign article in the markets of the world, the protective tariff enables the manufacturers to obtain from our own people almost double the price they could otherwise command."

It is needless to multiply illustrations. It is just as certain and inevitable as any other law of trade that the maker of an article who has the domestic market secured to him by the tariff will sell his surplus in foreign markets at any price he can get above the cost of production. Sometimes a tariff is enacted for that express purpose. Such was the outrageous tariff of 1869 on copper and copper ores. Before that law was passed we were exporting copper to European markets in large quantities, and this was notoriously the best copper in the world, and was obtained more cheaply than it could be produced elsewhere. Moreover, the companies producing it on Lake Superior were the richest in the world. For these reasons precisely, and in order to kill certain copper-smelting establishments in Boston and Baltimore, which were working in part on foreign ores, the copper tariff bill of 1869 was passed. It had the intended effect. It killed these smelting establishments, and it enabled the Calumet and Hecla Company to raise their price in the home market to the foreign price plus the tariff and freight. In other words, the company sold copper to Englishmen, Frenchmen, and Germans at five cents per pound less than they charged American consumers for the same article. One of the unexpected results was that some shrewd American dealers bought Lake Superior copper in foreign markets and shipped it back to New York, where it was entered free of duty as an American export returning in the original packages, and was sold at lower prices than the same kind of copper could be obtained for that had never crossed the ocean. This condition of things never caused a blush on the cheeks of the tariff-makers or the beneficiaries. The latter sent an agent to Europe who bought up all of their own copper that could be found in that market, and thereafter refused to sell any there unless they knew that it was to be consumed abroad.

This case is only one of hundreds. It is a little more glaring than others because the copper tariff of 1869 was a bill by itself. It contained nothing else, and hence it drew attention to a single item. It was peculiar also in the avowal made by its advocates that if they did not get what they wanted, they would kick the whole system of protection to the winds. It was peculiar further in the fact that the bill was vetoed by President Johnson and passed over his veto by a two-thirds majority. Aside from these quite extraneous circumstances, it was in no way different from the cases exposed in Mr. Warner's pamphlet or those mentioned in Mr. Saxton's letter. They are "all of a piece." They are as inevitable as the tariff-protected Trusts and combines.

SOCIALISM IN PRACTICE.

A CORRESPONDENT of the *Débats* has been writing some interesting letters from Roubaix, describing the workings of socialism in that place. It is a thriving manufacturing city of 120,000 inhabitants, which in 1892 elected a mayor and Municipal Council of pronounced socialistic views and on a frankly socialistic platform. Their "electoral programme" consisted of fourteen articles, and proposed, among other things, to furnish school-children one meal a day and two suits of clothes a year, to suppress taxes on the necessaries of life, to establish an eight-hours' day with a guarantee of at least a minimum wage; promised free employment bureaus, free medical advice and medicines at cost, free legal advice in "all matters concerning workingmen"; and declared in favor of paying city officers no higher salaries than those received by skilled workmen. On the strength of these proposals and promises the socialist mayor and Council were elected by large majorities, and have now been in control of Roubaix for one year.

What have been the results? It was to answer that question that the correspondent made his inquiries, rightly deeming one concrete case to be worth a thousand dreams on paper. He found that the new era had not got on very far. The socialistic authorities were not finding it so easy to perform as to promise. Certain annoying laws stood in their way, as, for example, those which enabled the prefect of the department to put a summary stop to their plan of having the city furnish free medical and legal advice. They took a sweet revenge on him by refusing to offer him the customary annual dinner, but that did not open their city pharmacies. Then there was the proverbial sobering effect of power, which made the Council willing to put up for a while longer with the miseries of a corrupt society. Some of their schemes they have now abandoned or deferred until public opinion shall be "riper." But the huge expense of applied socialism is what has most staggered them. It is all very well to have a New Jerusalem, but who is going to pay for its gold-paved streets?

However, a beginning has been made, if only to make ready for the next election. The project of feeding and clothing school-children was cautiously carried out in the case of twelve schools and 1,500 children. This cost the municipality $10,000. If the system should be applied throughout the city, according to plan and according to justice, the cost would be, it is estimated, at least $200,000 yearly. As it is, the city expenses for 1893 were more than $30,000 greater than for 1892. Where is the money to come from? From the nature of the case it will not do to increase the taxes on workingmen. But cannot the "bourgeois" be bled? In the first place, it is doubtful if they will quietly submit to the operation, and equally doubtful if taxes can be devised for their special benefit which will not hurt either the pocket or the feelings of some workingman. This was neatly shown in the attempt of the Roubaix Council to levy the *octroi* taxes so as to hit the bourgeois only. Common kinds of cheese were left free, while Brie and Gruyère were taxed. But instantly a great outcry arose from the proletariat. Were they, then, never to have any of the good things of life? Taxing luxuries, forsooth! Why, it is of the very essence of socialism to divide up the luxuries, and not start out this way on the vile capitalistic theory that the poor workingman is never to have his bit of Gruyère! These considerations are proving very embarrassing to the Council.

The personnel of the Council is also worth notice. It is composed of thirty-six members, of whom twenty-eight are saloon-keepers. There are 8,000 saloons in Roubaix, so that it is only fair that they should furnish a goodly number of apostles of the new religion. It is no wonder, either, that they should show a readiness to help themselves to the good things of the Kingdom. The Council has had frequent occasion to take little excursions to various points to study socialistic experiments, and the bills are regularly presented to the city. Thus, they took a trip to Guise recently, and turned in a bill of $40 each; the railroad fare, it may not be without pertinence to remark, is $3. It is only fair to say that

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such proceedings have awakened complaints that the Council was showing a dangerous tendency to "s'embourgeoiser," and that a similar reproach has been directed against the mayor for having had his salary increased from $960 to $2,700.

What else could be expected? It is not society that must be changed, but human nature, before any other results can be looked for. Those who say with Mark Pattison that socialism is coming, and is bound to come, distrust and hate it as they may, overlook the fact that human nature has been longer in the world than any social theory, and will stay longer than any social theory not in accordance with it. As Mr. Goschen said in his president's address before the British Economic Association:

"The socialist 'ethical' man is an hypothesis, just as the older economic man was an hypothesis. I am afraid that the one hypothesis will find as little its counterpart in this world of ours as the other hypothesis; and if the economic man is a monster, the ethical man, as pictured by the socialists, is an angel who will not walk upon this terrestrial globe."

JEFFERSON'S NOTES ON VIRGINIA.—I.

BROOKLYN, January 24, 1894.

THE wide reputation and high value that have been accorded to the 'Notes on Virginia' for over one hundred years makes any attempt to praise it at this day little less than a work of supererogation. Its frequent republication is alone testimony sufficient to prove its unusual merit. Aside from its intrinsic value, it is of interest as Jefferson's most serious piece of book-making, and the one on which the larger part of his philosophical reputation was based during his lifetime. It was also, at the time of its production, a notable contribution to American scientific writing, and has been, perhaps, the most frequently reprinted book ever written in the United States south of Mason and Dixon's line. Yet, in spite of this reputation, I have been surprised, in a recent study of the book, to find how little was known concerning its true history, and how important a comparison of the various editions was for a proper use of the book. Some of these facts seem of sufficient value to put in print.

The 'Notes on Virginia' was prepared for the benefit of the French Government, by Jefferson, in 1781. It purported merely to answer a series of questions concerning Virginia which that government was asking of each State of the Union. But after Jefferson had sent his replies to the French minister, he went over his Notes, and elaborated them into a full account of the State, making a work of the utmost value. His friends asked for copies to such an extent that Jefferson concluded to print it, and, when he reached Paris, he had two hundred copies struck off. The printer of the edition has never been known, but is revealed by notes in his diary, for he records on September 13, 1784: "Pd. M. La Marche in part for sheets 1,176f."; and under October 15: "Pd. M. La Marche balance for sheets 69f." A few of these copies Jefferson at once distributed, always writing on the fly-leaf a request that it be considered a confidential communication. At the Columbian Exposition, in the French exhibit, Lafayette's copy of the book was shown, with the following autograph inscription, which is a good type of the others:

"Th. Jefferson begs the Marquis de La Fayette's acceptance of a copy of these Notes. The circumstances under which they were written, and the talents of the writer, will account for their errors and defects. The original was sent to Mr. de Marbois in December, 1781.

"The desire of a friend to possess some of the details they contained occasioned him to revise them in the subsequent winter. The vices however of their original composition were such as to forbid material amendment. He now has a few copies printed with a design of offering them to some of his friends, and to some estimable characters beyond that line. A copy is presented to the Marquis de La Fayette whose services to the American Union in general, and to that member of it particularly which is the subject of these Notes and in that precise point of time too to which they relate, entitle him to this offering.

"To these considerations the writer hopes he may be permitted to add his own personal friendship and esteem for the Marquis. Unwilling to expose these sheets to the public eye the writer begs the favor of the Marquis to put them into the hands of no person on whose care and fidelity he cannot rely to guard them against publication."

Jefferson's reason for such secrecy was due to his severe strictures on slavery and the Constitution of Virginia. He had himself suffered in the party heats of his State, and he knew that he should make himself disliked by the whole "planter interest" by his views on the former, and by Patrick Henry and his partisans by his criticisms of the Constitution. Otherwise he had no wish to withhold its publication, as is shown by a letter of his to Chastellux:

"I am not afraid that you should make any extracts you please for the Journal de Physique which come within their plan of publication. The strictures on slavery and on the constitution of Virginia are not of that kind, and they are the parts which I do not wish to have made public, at least till I know whether their publication would do most harm or good. It is possible that in my own country these strictures might produce an irritation which indispose the people toward the two great objects I have in view, that is the emancipation of their slaves & the settlement of their constitution on a firmer & more permanent basis."

Yet even these criticisms had been toned down by Jefferson before printing. The original proof-sheets of this first edition are preserved in the New York State Library at Albany, and, to show how far Jefferson modified his "first thoughts," the following comparison of what he wrote concerning the action of the Virginia Assembly in 1781 in voting that "40 members be a quorum during the present invasion," and what he printed, is interesting:

PROOF-SHEETS.	TEXT OF 1784.
But they might as well have voted that a square inch of linen should be sufficient to make them a shirt, and walk into public view in confidence of being covered by it. Nor would it make the shirt bigger, that they could get no more linen.	But this danger could not authorize them to call that a house which was none; and if they may fix it at one number, they may at another, till it loses its fundamental character of being a representative body. This vote expires with the present invasion, it is probable the former rule will be permitted to revive; because at present no ill is meant.

Jefferson's revision did not end with the proof sheets. As first printed, the text of 1784 advanced his famous theory of shell formations in high mountains, a theory which was greeted with such ridicule by the French press that Jefferson promptly cancelled the three pages that contained it, and had new leaves printed for insertion in their place. He wrote to Carmichael, December 26, 1786:

"My Notes on Virginia having been hastily written, need abundance of corrections. Two or three of these are so material that I am reprinting a few leaves to substitute for the old. As soon as these shall be ready I will beg your acceptance of a copy."

This change was as follows:

CANCELLED LEAVES.	SUBSTITUTE LEAVES.
But such deluges as these will not account for the shells found in the higher lands. Besides the usual process for generating shells by the elaboration of earth and water in animal vessels, may not nature have provided an equivalent operation, by passing the same materials through the pores of calcareous earths and stones? As we see calcareous dropstones generating every day by the percolation of water through limestone, and new marble forming in the quarries from which the old has been taken out, which is said to be the case in the quarries of Italy. Is it more difficult for nature to shoot the calcareous juice into the form of a shell, than other juices in to the forms of Chrystals, plants, animals, according to the construction of the vessels through which they pass? There is a wonder somewhere. Is it greatest on this branch of a dilemma or on that which supposes the creation of such a body of water, and its subsequent annihilation? Have not naturalists already brought themselves to believe much stranger things? Thus, they seriously concur in the opinion that those immense hills and plains of marble to be found in every quarter of the globe, nay the very foundations of the earth itself, which is of limestone in large tracts of this country and probably of others, and has been found here to continue solid to the depth of 200 feet, farther than which we have not penetrated, that these, I say, and all other calcareous bodies are animal remains M. de Voltaire, who seems first to have suspected that shells might grow unconnected with animal bodies, specifies an instance in a particular place in France which has never yet, as far as I have heard, been disproved or denied.	M. de Voltaire has suggested a third solution of this difficulty. (Quest. Encycl. Coquilles.) He cites, an instance in Tourraine, where, in the space of eighty years, a particular spot of earth had been twice metamorphosed in to soft stone, which had become hard when employed in building: in this stone, shells of various kinds were produced, discoverable at first only with the microscope, but afterwards growing with the stone. From this fact, I suppose, he would have us infer that besides the usual process for generating shells by the elaboration of earth and water in animal vessels, nature may have provided an equivalent operation, by passing the same materials through the pores of calcareous earths and stones: as we see calcareous dropstones generating every day by percolation of water through limestone, and new marble forming in the quarries from which the old has been taken out; and it might be asked whether it is more difficult for nature to shoot the calcareous juice into the form of a shell than other juices into the form of chrystals, plants, animals, according to the construction of the vessels through which they pass? There is a wonder somewhere. Is it greatest on this branch of the dilemma; on that which supposes the existence of a power of which we have no evidence in any other case; or on the first, which requires us to believe the creation of a body of water, and its subsequent annihilation? The establishment of the instance cited by M. de Voltaire, of the growth of shells unattached to animal bodies would have been that of this theory. But he has not established it. He has not even left it on ground so respectable as to have rendered it an object of enquiry to the literati of his own country. Abandoning this fact, therefore, the three hypotheses are equally unsatisfactory; & we must be contented to acknowledge that this great phenomenon is as yet unsolved. Ignorance is preferable to error: and he is less remote from the truth who believes nothing, than he who believes what is wrong.

Quite as curious is a change Jefferson made in another part of the text of the first edition, in revising it for the edition of 1787—a change which indicates how far the influence of the French theories then germinating into the Revolution, as well as the frightful social condition of France, had developed his democratic theories. This change is made in his paragraph on the government of the American Indians:

TEXT OF 1784.	TEXT OF 1787.
Very possible there may have been anciently three different stocks, each of which multiplying in a long course of time, had separated into so many little societies, the principals of their government being so weak as to give	Very possible there may have been anciently three different stocks, each of which multiplying in a long course of time, had separated into as many little societies. This practice results from the circumstance of their hav-

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this liberty to all its members.

ing never submitted themselves to any laws, any coercive power, any shadow of government. Their only controls are their manners, and that moral sense of right and wrong, which, like the sense of tasting and feeling in every man, makes a part of his nature An offence against these is punished by contempt by exclusion from society, or, where the case is serious, as that of murder, by the individuals whom it concerns. Imperfect as this species of coercion may seem, crimes are very rare among them, insomuch that were it made a question, whether no law, as among the savage Americans, or too much law, as among the civilized Europeans, submits man to the greatest evil, one who has seen both conditions of existence would pronounce it to be the last; and that the sheep are happier of themselves, than under care of the wolves. It will be said, that great societies cannot exist without government. The savages therefore, break them into small ones."

PAUL LEICESTER FORD.

THE ANCIENT COMMONWEALTH OF SAN MARINO.

FLORENCE, December 1, 1893.

As in Plato's time it was a literary fashion to look upon Sparta as the type of a pure and simple government, so in modern Europe it is customary to consider San Marino the sole survivor of the mediæval Italian republics, and a worthy example to degenerate democracy. Padiglione, in his learned 'Dictionary, Bibliographical and Historical, of San Marino,' has collected an anthology of flattering opinions upon his beloved country from more than a hundred writers, ranging from "Adams" to George Sand. I have just finished a long-contemplated visit, intended to test the statement of the great work above cited, that San Marino is "a state for its ancient freedom and observance of laws a model for all civilized nations."

Like Sparta, also, the little republic is first of all distinguished by the difficulty of reaching it. In the spring or fall one might enjoy a beautiful walk thither from Florence across the mountains through Vallombrosa and St. Leo, but at this season the new railway northward from Florence is welcome. On the way one is tempted to philosophize over that Roman love for grandiose building which reappears in Italian railway works: the viaducts are so long and so imposing, the tunnels so frequent, that the inquiry thrusts itself upon the mind whether Italian engineers are not prone to shirk the difficulty of maintaining the permanent way on the soapy slopes of the Apennines by putting it up into the air, or enclosing it in the interior solidity of the mountains. The gnarly backbone of Italy thus penetrated, the road descends more peacefully to Faenza, a town once famous for its majolica, and still showing excellent country earthenware in its market-place. Thence the Bologna-Ancona trunk line leads to Rimini, and so into another world.

It is not of Rimini that I shall write—Rimini, where the bridge and arch of Augustus are fresher and newer than the modern hotel, and yet less ancient than the mediæval palace-castle of the Malatesta, and less pagan in feeling than the beautiful Renaissance cathedral. To the San Marinese, Rimini is only their most convenient point of connection with Italy and the universe. From Rimini the traveller bound to San Marino sees through the vapory light of the early morning a long dark ridge, some ten miles away, hedging in the upper end of a broad valley which stretches northward. The road, more undulating than is common in Italian mountains, leads past scattered farmhouses, the loopholed walls telling a sufficient story of the former insecurity of the country. As the miles increase, the sky line of Monte Titano takes on a curiously regular serration, with square-edged pinnacles, grouped about three large rectangular masses. After some eight miles a bridge is crossed, and the traveller is out of Italy. As the light carriage ascends the new road, serpentining its way up a range of foot-hills, the mountain begins to resolve itself from a simple wall into a splendid cliff, with capes and bays; and now, on three bastions thrust well forward towards the lower country, distinctly appear three massive towers, each with a pennant—at once the ancient defence of the still-concealed town and the origin of its coat-of-arms—three towers with feathers.

At the foot of the cliff, yet still high above the surrounding country, lies Borgo, where, according to Baedeker, "the wealthier inhabitants" reside; where there is a bank and a theatre, and where one finds, according to the veracious Dehò's 'Guida di San Marino,' "elegant palaces on a small scale, and beautiful shops; . . . a modern citylet furnished with whatever ministers to the needs of life." Here is the first shock to the enthusiastic seeker after historical truth, for Borgo is visibly nothing more than a squalid provincial town, in which dirt and discomfort are distributed with republican impartiality. Still, Borgo is not the capital city. From above its zigzag streets leads a steep paved path, the Costa, winding under the cliff and around the buttress of the mountain, and bending back through a fortified gateway into the lower corner of the town of San Marino.

In situation and first aspect the town is singularly like Assisi; it rests on the gentler slope of Monte Titano, only the fortifications showing on the steep front; and the streets lie one above another, connected by inclines and flights of steps, up to the tiny piazza. A few minutes' observation shows the marked difference between the two towns: here are no towers, no dismantled forts—in a word, no traces of old family strongholds; and here are none of the delightful mediæval or Renaissance buildings which adorn the neighboring cities. No old palaces or guild-halls or churches attract the eye. In situation, in walls, in picturesque streets, the place is mediæval, but in the more elaborate buildings and even in the spirit of the place it is distinctly recent. Houses are going up, a new and easy road sidles around the mountain from Borgo; a good hospital marks the public spirit of the people; the old castle crowning the heights is a tidy prison; the church, of the present century, is spacious and well-planned; a new and stately town-hall is nearly finished. In the library of the state are two surprises: a few very excellent pictures by well-known Renaissance artists, and, in the vestibule, a tablet setting forth the gratitude of the republic for an endowment, for the purchase of books, the gift of

"WILLIAM WARREN TUCKER
DI BOSTON."

From the delightful wild garden above the church may be seen the commanding situation of the prosperous little place. It is like no other Italian view with which I am familiar. On all sides are sharp hills, showing little rock exposure, and in the hollows lie unbridled rivers, flowing through broad plains of their own débris. To the north and west rise the Apennines, high but not forbidding. The villages are few; only one other fortified place is visible. Yet it is evidently not its situation which has given its peculiar history to San Marino. Its site is such as Umbrians and Etruscans loved; yet there is no trace of ancient settlement. It is well suited for such a convent fortress as its neighbor, St. Leo, but it has no similar foundation. A mediæval robber-baron would have been happy in such an eyrie, but he never came to take it. The site is in many ways as advantageous for a great commercial city as that of Siena or Perugia, but it never grew rich. From Monte Titano may be seen the low sea-coast near Ravenna; within sight have passed the fleets of Pompeius, Justinian, Bajazet, the Venetian Dandolos, and the Genoese Dorias; yet it was never a maritime place. The armies of Cæsar, Hadrian, Frederick Barbarossa, and Napoleon passed near by, yet none of them made it a stronghold. San Marino is now what it has been for at least ten centuries—a quiet fortified village, the abode, and, if need be, the refuge, of a farming community. From the castle the eye easily follows the frontier line, nowhere more than four miles distant, which includes in its twenty square miles three or four other villages. That line marks the farthest extent of territory which the republic has ever governed, and it has never exceeded in inhabitants the present 8,000.

Between this miniature country and its institutions there is a delicious disproportion. The little area of thin soil has for centuries maintained a complicated government. In the town-hall are tablets dated with such inscriptions as "Onofri et Pasi Consulibus." The archives contain the records of the "Consiglio Principe e Sovrano," and of the "Consiglio dei XII."; of three systems of courts; of the three Secretaryships of the Interior, Finance, and Foreign Affairs; of the Militia and the Guard. There is a national post-office; there is an army of nine hundred and fifty men and eight officers; there are diplomatic agents in Paris and Montevideo, and consuls in various European cities. Services rendered to the State or to science may be rewarded by knighthood, and so late as 1876 San Marino expressed its gratitude to an English lady for her gift of a statue of liberty, by making her Duchess of Acquaviva.

Titles are by no means the most undemocratic part of the republic. On examination it is seen to be in fact an oligarchy. Sovereignty is exercised by the Council of Sixty, the members of which hold for life, and which fills its own vacancies out of the heads of families of the republic. From this council twelve members are chosen semi-annually by lot; from the twelve six are chosen by vote; from the six two are chosen by lot, and they serve for six months as the consuls or "capitani," the executive of the republic. Judges are chosen for three years. In its essential features this is the system of Venice and other mediæval republics; not one in twenty-five of the adult men is possessed of "political rights" as understood in America or in Italy.

Yet an oligarchy among yeoman farmers is a very different thing from an oligarchy among merchant princes. San Marino may be compared with colonial Massachusetts. The few voters have always really represented the mass of the people. It has been a singularly united, courageous, honorable, public-spirited, and

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prudent people. Union was possible because it was and is a poor community, in which there were no powerful families to fight and expel each other, or exiles to come back with an enemy's army. The courage of the people is shown by their hospitality to Garibaldi when he was fleeing after his defeat of 1849. An excellent moral fibre was manifested when, in 1868, the Republic refused to receive the gambling establishments which had been made illegal in other countries. The new town-hall is a monument to the enlightened public spirit of the San Marinese, as well as to their taste. That the State is prudent is shown by its distinction, almost unique in Europe, of having no public debt.

Other little states in Europe have had similar good qualities, yet have long since been destroyed. Why has San Marino outlived them all? One obvious reason is that in the fiercest battle one soldier is left alone to tell the tale: San Marino has escaped political destruction as Venice has escaped material destruction, as one among a thousand. Still, my old teacher's explanation "why the oldest walls are the best" is pertinent here: "If they were not the best," said he, "they would not be the oldest." The republic which has records as far back as 885 must have been solidly founded. The perpetuation of the government is due in the first place to a singular freedom from any desire to extend its borders. The outlying villages have been added by gift or by their own free will; and when, in 1797, Gen. Bonaparte invited the San Marinese to make their wishes known, "if any part of the adjacent territory is absolutely necessary to you," the hard-headed leaders declined "an enlargement which might in time compromise their liberty." On the other hand, the poor town had nothing worth plundering, and annexation was so difficult a task that Benedict XIV. said of Cardinal Alberoni's attempt in 1739: "San Marino is a tough bread-crust; the man who tries to bite it gets his teeth broken."

Nevertheless, even peaceful and inoffensive communities were not safe during the last twelve centuries, without powerful protectors. The determining reason for the freedom of San Marino since 1300 has been the friendship of potentates, first of the neighboring Dukes of Urbino, then of the Popes, then of Napoleon, then of Italy. Twice has San Marino been occupied by a foreign power. In 1503 Cæsar Borgia had grasped it, and Julius II. made him loose his hand; in 1739 the Pope overruled the occupation by his own legate, Alberoni. We have already seen what compliments the French lavished during their conquest of Italy in 1797. Napoleon III. later, by gifts of books and civil speeches, testified a like love for republican government—in San Marino.

When the kingdom of Italy was formed in 1860, no one cared to erase from the map a state which even the Pope had spared, and in which Europe was interested. Hence the San Marinese retained a situation comparable with that of the native states in India. A "consolato" of the Italian Government resides in the town; the schools are assimilated to the Italian system; appeals may be had from the courts to the Italian upper courts, and precautions are taken to prevent the harboring of refugee criminals. Yet of the old sovereignty four important incidents are retained. San Marino has a post-office, a kind of national plaything; but the rare and beautiful stamps are much prized by collectors, and doubtless the sale helps the coffers of the state. The San Marinese manage, and well manage, their own local affairs, without any annoying interference from an Italian prefect. They owe no military service to Italy, and their own militia is no burden. Above all, they pay no taxes to Italy. If I were an Italian, I should like to be a San Marinese.

As the interesting day on Monte Titano advanced, clouds began to gather on the distant hills and in the valleys beneath. Reluctantly I descended the steep Costa. As I reached Borgo the mists swept up, blotting out the cliffs and wrapping in deserved obscurity the representative of a fledgling sister republic over the sea, and with him his political philosophy. ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.

DANTE'S VISUAL IMAGES, AND HIS EARLY ILLUSTRATORS.

FLORENCE, December 24, 1893.

MERE learning has perhaps done its very utmost with Dante by this time, and, if the subject is not to become stagnant, it must now be approached from other points of view, and the light of other than merely philological and philosophical erudition must be thrown upon it. Is it not rather extraordinary that thus far it has occurred to only one writer, and that not one of the corps enrolled to write on the subject, but a free-lance such as Vernon Lee is, to ask the question what visual images Dante had while giving his perfectly plastic descriptions of the exterior universe? Few students of Dante stop to wonder what correspondence there can be between his visual images while writing and those called up in our minds while reading him, and they are apt to fancy that the correspondence must be great. But those of us who visualize at all cannot read about Trajan and the Widow, let us say, without seeing an image based on some one or on a whole number of Roman bas-reliefs. Dante could not have had such an acquaintance with the antique as we cannot help having, and his visual image of a scene taking place in Greece or Rome or Judea could have had no great likeness to ours. It could scarcely have been otherwise with the figure of Virgil himself. We cannot help dressing Virgil as a Roman, and giving him a "classical profile" and "statuesque carriage," but Dante's visual image of Virgil was probably no less mediæval, no more based on a critical reconstruction of antiquity, than his entire conception of the Roman poet. Fourteenth-century illustrators make Virgil look like a mediæval scholar, dressed in cap and gown, and there is no reason why Dante's visual image of him should have been other than this.

That Dante had visual images, there can scarcely be a doubt. We have, in proof, besides the unequalled plasticity of all his descriptions, the detailed account in *Purgatorio*, Canto X., of the various reliefs representing acts of humility. These reliefs are simply the descriptions of the visual images called up in Dante's mind by the acts of humility. "To take plastic shape in the mind" has become a common phrase in criticism, but it can have no meaning unless that of *becoming visualized;* and as the phrase is applied to Dante, it means that Dante visualized everything that passed through his mind. Nothing, therefore, could bring us nearer to a knowledge of those contents of Dante's mind of which he was himself aware while writing, than if we could form some conception of his visual images.

Dante himelf gives the clue. On the first anniversary of Beatrice's death, he says in the 'Vita Nuova,' he sat down and drew the figure of an angel. A student of early Tuscan art must know how this angel looked. Dante could not have invented this figure, but, like all amateurs, he drew an angel of the kind his favorite painter would have drawn, and in this instance the painter is Giotto. Dante's angel in all likelihood resembled one of Giotto's such as we see in Assisi, Padua, or Florence; and had Dante gone further and drawn a whole scene—that is to say, exactly rendered as only form and color can render a visual image—its relation to one of Giotto's whole pictures would have been the same. Dante's visual image of the Virtues, of the heavenly hosts, of Christ and the Virgin, of St. Francis, could not have been very different from Giotto's, nor even his image of Beatrice very different from one of the great painter's sleek-faced, almond-eyed, waistless women. Beatrice did not necessarily look like this. The visual image is not the direct impression of the object, but the memory of the impression more or less vague according to the varying powers of visualization; and in a lover of the arts such as Dante was, visualization is largely determined by the works of art with which he is intimately acquainted. It is Giotto whom Dante knew best and loved best, and it is the study of Giotto, therefore, and of kindred painters (some even closer in spirit to Dante, such as Duccio, Simone Martini, and the Lorenzetti) that will enable us to form a clear conception of Dante's visual images.

None of these painters shows trace of direct Dantesque inspiration, and none of them has left what would have been the most valuable of all commentaries on the real Dante, a series of illustrations to the 'Divina Commedia.' But they frequently dealt with subjects fringing on Dante's, and a systematic study of these would be a great help in reconstructing the poet's visual images. Illustrations, moreover, by their followers, the heirs of their conceptions, exist in plenty. After these contemporaries of Dante, no painter at all on a level in genius with him appeared until Signorelli, but by that time visual imagery had changed from mediæval to modern. To a certain extent, the antique had already been critically reconstructed. Still, Signorelli's illustrations in the chapel of S. Brizio at Orvieto have an interest not only as interpretations by a great artist, but as the visual images suggested by Dante to a person much nearer the poet than we are, for the attitude of the Renaissance towards antiquity was still subjective—far less than Dante's, but endlessly more than our own. The Renaissance viewed antiquity not with our feeling of its being for ever past, but with longing and the hope of wholly restoring it to a living present. It is this which gives that fascinating tinge of romance to Renaissance reconstructions of antiquity. Michelangelo's attitude is already quite like our own, and his visual images could give no clue to Dante's; but as interpretations they would be invaluable, for he is the only artist of modern times whose genius was of a kind and of a quality to be compared with Dante's. That a series of illustrations by Michelangelo to the 'Divina Commedia' existed there can be but little doubt, and their loss is one of the greatest the study of Dante has incurred. Botticelli's sketches are scarcely to be considered, for, great as they are as works of art, Botticelli was too subjective to give his illustrations a greater connection with the subject than can be had in lineal rhapsodies. Zuccaro and Stradano, working when the Renaissance was rotten-ripe, far from being a help, are as much in the way as Doré. They were even farther from suspecting the difference between their own and Dante's visual

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images. The next great event in the study of Dante will probably be an edition of the 'Commedia' with illustrations chosen from the finest of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, and from the best by Signorelli and Botticelli, supplemented by such parallel conceptions as may be found in Dante's contemporaries, and even in Michelangelo and Tintoretto. The editor of such an edition of the 'Commedia' will find that the ground has been well prepared by Dr. Ludwig Volkmann, in his pamphlet on early illustrations to Dante.*

Dr. Volkmann has examined more than seventy illustrated codices in Germany and Italy, not having extended his studies beyond these countries. France and England would have increased the list considerably. He divides the codices into two classes, those containing illuminations and such as have water-color or lineal illustrations. The *Inferno*, as might have been expected, attracted the greatest number of illustrators, the *Purgatorio* fewer, and the *Paradiso* least of all. Traditional compositions, therefore, as for ecclesiastical subjects, sprang up for the first, while the illustrator of the last had to rely on his own invention. But it seems to have taken a whole generation before illustrators found out what parts of the 'Commedia' they could handle. At first they tried all the cantos.

Illuminated codices contain, as a rule, miniatures for the initial letters only at the beginning of each of the three sections, and these miniatures soon became stereotyped. In the initial of the *Inferno* Dante is represented either at his desk, or with Virgil in the forest. The P of the *Purgatorio* contains either Virgil and Dante sailing up to the Mount, or a picture of souls aflame. The L of the *Paradiso* gives a bust of Christ, the Trinity, or Dante and Beatrice. A few of the illuminated codices contain elaborate and very complete illustrations. Of the fourteenth century, the best of all is one in the Nazionale at Florence, dating from about 1333. Here Minos, Pluto, and Cerberus are represented not as we who have been brought up on Smith's 'Classical Dictionary' think of them, but as creatures with hoofs, claws and horns, and flaming eyes, as Dante in all probability saw them in his mind. A codex in the Angelica at Rome is almost on a level with the one in Florence. Among miniatured codices of later days the most valuable is certainly the one in the Vatican that was begun for Frederic of Urbino by some follower of Giovanni Bellini, and finished at a much later date by some one who was no stranger to Lorenzo Lotto's works. This codex would yield a number of plates for an illustrated edition of Dante.

The great difference between the illustrations in miniature and those in outline or water-color is that the former never represent the same person more than once in the same illustration, while the latter tend to be panoramic, crowding several events in which the same person is concerned into one composition. This, by the way, was a practice common in Italian painting in general. The best of this latter series is a codex in the Marciana at Venice, with 245 large illustrations, for the most part in outline, by an artist who shows great affinities with the Florentines of the Trecento. At the beginning of the *Paradiso* he has represented Dante at the feet of Apollo, who appears here as a young, fair-haired knight fiddling to his heart's content. Most of the other illustrations are equally remote from our own conceptions and probably equally close to Dante's visual images. At Altona there is a valuable codex of about 1400.

The early engravings, such as Baldini's, have small value except as playthings, and the early woodcuts are scarcely better, although they often have inimitable traits of naïveté; but the conceptions of their authors are too infantile to touch Dante at all. The first edition of Dante with woodcuts appeared at Brescia in 1487. Repetitions and improvements of this were published at Venice in 1491, 1493, and 1497. But it is the illustrators of the fourteenth century, and not these late people, who bring us close to Dante's visual image. These scarcely deserve attention. B. BERENSON.

*'Bildliche Darstellungen zu Dantes Divina Commedia bis zum Ausgang der Renaissance.' Leipzig; Breitkopf & Härtel, 1892.

Correspondence.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Having seen my name mentioned in your notice of 'Twenty Years at Sea,' I was naturally curious to learn in what connection it was used. The book is in such great demand that it is only now that I have been able to obtain a copy of it. I have read with great surprise the story about the "battle of the hats," for no such affair occurred on board. A few men (not of my company F) may possibly have thrown their hats overboard, but I have no recollection of such a thing. If the author had so chosen, he might have narrated an incident of a much more serious character that *did* occur while we lay at Rio, and which would have given an idea as to the enforcement of discipline among the troops on board very different from that conveyed by his amusing story. FRANCIS J. LIPPITT.

ANNAPOLIS, MD., January 24.

MADAME KOVALEVSKI.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In this week's issue of the *Nation*, in an account of Miss Klumpke's recent achievement in attaining the degree of Doctor in Mathematical Sciences in Paris, occurs the curiously inaccurate statement that "it is nearly a generation since the French Academy of Sciences, on the report of a commission of men, awarded one of its highest prizes to *Miss* Kovalevski for her valuable contributions to the science of astronomy," and later that "a similar though somewhat more definite honor has been conferred on an American student," etc.

As a matter of fact, it is just five years (December 24, 1888) since the Prix Bordin was awarded to Mme. Sophie Kovalevski, then professor of mathematics at the University of Stockholm, while at that very time Miss Klumpke was making observations at the Paris Observatory. Such an achievement should hardly be forgotten so soon, and I may perhaps be pardoned for saying, without wishing in the least to disparage Miss Klumpke's success, of which we as Americans may well be proud, that Mme. Kovalevski's memoir was the product of the mature mind of a mathematician of the first order, and is hardly to be compared with a doctor's thesis, however clever. It was a contribution to pure mathematics rather than to astronomy, and it may be seen that the honor conferred could hardly have been more "definite" when we consider that the Prix Bordin, the second in the list of fifty-nine prizes conferred by the Academy in that year, was specially raised from 3,000 to 5,000 francs, on account of the high quality of the memoir. The committee, in unanimously recommending the memoir which was found to be Mme. Kovalevski's, said:

"L'auteur ne s'est pas contenté d'ajouter ainsi un résultat du plus haut intérêt à ceux *qui nous ont été transmis sur ce sujet par Euler* et par Lagrange; il a fait de la découverte que nous lui devons une étude approfondie dans laquelle sont employées toutes les ressources de la théorie moderne des fonctions. . . . La Commission émet le vœu que le mémoire couronné soit imprimé dans le Receuil des Mémoires des Savants étrangers."

It seems rather remarkable that this gifted woman, for whom a professorship was created in the University of Stockholm, should have been refused election to the Swedish Royal Academy of Sciences because she was a woman. There lies before the writer a copy of the motion of Prof. Mittag-Leffler, that the word "man" in the constitution of the Academy should be replaced by the word "personer," together with his forcible advocacy of the claims of Mme. Kovalevski to election. Although conservatism won, it has since been recognized that in the premature death of Mme. Kovalevski not only did the world lose one of its most remarkable women, but mathematical science one of its leading exponents, without regard to sex.

Let us be thankful that in Paris at least brains are recognized as brains, whether male or female. How long shall we wait before such is the case in this progressive country? While in Paris, Russian or American, man or woman, may become a doctor if he show the necessary attainments, here a petition must be handed around that Harvard shall allow women who have done the work to receive a real Harvard *A.B.* Harvard is not the only American university that lets women in at the back door. What answer is made to them if perchance they seek a doctor's degree?—Respectfully,

ARTHUR GORDON WEBSTER.

WORCESTER, MASS., January 27, 1894.

[The source of our confusion may be discovered in the fact that Miss Corvin-Krukovski (Mme. Kovalevski) won her philosophical doctorate at Göttingen in 1874, at the age of twenty-one.—ED. NATION.]

DESCENDANTS OF CROMWELL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: When a literary fact lies open to all the world and is apparently overlooked by all the world, one feels the same reluctance to call attention to it which he would to pick up a purse on a crowded sidewalk. If there is anything in it, how did it happen to be left for him? But my own curiosity in this case overpowers my hesitation. I have seen floating through the press for some weeks, and I find noted in your last issue, what is said to be the hitherto unknown fact that a descendant of Cromwell was living till lately—Mrs. Bush, who died in November. But in the preface to 'The Fall of the Monarchy of Charles I.,' published in 1882, Prof. Samuel R. Gardiner says that he is himself a descendant of Cromwell and Ireton. This has always been highly interesting to me as an instance of transmitted genius, though, as so often happens, in a different line; and I am sincerely concerned to know why the press, both of England and America, have unani-

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mously ignored it in this discussion. Has Prof. Gardiner since disclaimed the genealogy, or have others disproved it? If true (and I at least have seen no contradiction of it), it is far more important than the case of a dead lady of no account.

I ask without dogmatism, simply to learn the truth. F. M.

HARTFORD, January 26, 1894.

A CLERGYMAN'S QUALIFICATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your generalizations in criticism of Mr. Royce in the *Nation* of January 25 do not coincide with what I have learned from my observation, which to be sure is limited. It seems to me that churches do not get, as a rule, men who are essentially "society" men. A very superficial glance shows us that the majority of theological students do not come from that class of families who consider the social amenities important. So, whatever may be the demand for clergymen with social qualities, and however successful a few churches may be in getting such, it is certainly true that the average church does not have the opportunity to choose a pastor from among those who are perfectly at ease in the parlor. At the same time it is evident that the majority of clergymen, however trained in early life, do, from the nature of their position, acquire a certain ease of manner—in the sitting-room, if not in the parlor.

What is demanded is that the clergyman of to-day be a "pastor" as well as a preacher, and this is only a juster way of putting your position. People do require that a minister shall not confine his efforts to the study. If he does that, he is criticised as not being a good "pastor." The experience of the clergyman whom you quote in the last part of your editorial does not seem to me common enough to warrant your generalization. The pastor is, however, expected to make calls, especially on the sick, and adds to his popularity, and may add to his usefulness, if he shows himself willing and able to talk with his parishioners on topics in which they are interested. More personal work is expected of the clergy than formerly, but if this work is of the perfunctory, superficial sort, his people are not satisfied. Men desire in the man at the head of the church some one a little better than they, and one who from his character and ability appeals to their better selves. It is their misfortune that they are not always able to get such men.

You are right when you speak of the importance of executive talent. As the church has seen the necessity of extending its functions on account of the growth of the cities and the desire to reach out more widely, the need of organization has been made apparent. In these respects there has been a transformation. Yet the principal quality still demanded in a minister is that he shall be a good preacher, and the quarrel with Mr. Royce ought to narrow itself down to the question: What, in the eyes of church attendants, is a good preacher? One of the most popular and admired ministers in a certain city of one hundred thousand or more, is notably awkward and lacking in the social amenities; another, in a city of about the same size but of a very different sort, is criticised for his lack of social qualities, but he probably gets the largest salary of any minister in the city, with perhaps one exception. H.

JANUARY 26, 1894.

PROFIT AND INTEREST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of December 28, 1893, p. 491, you quote: "This conduct [abstinence] of which profit is the reward has no name simply because it has no existence"; but in your just strictures on Mr. Cannan's attitude, you silently correct this by saying: "Now, the proposition that interest is the reward of abstinence, etc." Mill's analysis of profit may be supplemented and extended, but can it be disregarded by any one who thinks about such matters, even if it is brushed aside by some who write? Minor differences are naturally of slight importance when profits themselves are to be swept away. There are no wages of superintendence, no compensation for risk, no remuneration for abstinence, in the books of those who are elaborating the political economy of the future. All men are going to be disinterested and intelligent; and, as a consequence, one may hope, willing and able to state their predecessors' opinions correctly. Is not this likely to be, to the socialist State, a source of danger that has been unnoticed hitherto by those who are intent on promoting the intelligence of future ages? Mill himself says:

"Strange that when the greatest embarrassment felt by all who have any considerable number of thoughts to express, is to find a sufficient variety of precise words fitted to express them, there should be no practice to which even scientific writers are more addicted than that of taking valuable words to express ideas which are sufficiently expressed by other words already appropriated to them."

A. I.

NEW BEDFORD, January 24, 1894.

THE MEDICAL ADVERTISEMENT ABOMINATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Many of your readers besides myself must have felt an agreeable emotion run through them when they saw the note in your last week's paper describing the new Society for the Regulation of Advertising in Public Places in England. Even here we may then hope, if the English agitation succeeds. But pending the possible restriction hereafter of open-air placards and inscriptions, it seems to me that the time is already quite ripe to begin to take action in our several States concerning a form of advertisement from which America suffers as no other country ever has been or ever will be cursed. I refer to the medical advertisements in our newspapers. Since nothing important can be accomplished nowadays without the formation of a "society" to carry on the agitation, will not some persons of public spirit, aggressive character, and organizing faculty, form a national association, which should have branches in all the States, for forcing their legislators to impose limits on this truly hideous feature of our latter-day life? Every product of social evolution inevitably proceeds to excesses until it has to be regulated by law for the better protection of the individual. Electric wires are the last case in point; cannot medical advertisements be the next? Their evolution has gone on with ever-accelerated velocity, invention succeeding invention, and discovery following on the heels of discovery as to their susceptibility of wider elaboration, and as to their money-bringing power, until now they literally form the principal feature of our provincial newspapers, and in many of the "great dailies" of our cities play a part second only to the collective display of suicides, murders, seductions, fights, and rapes; while thousands of shameless persons are reputed to add materially to their incomes by selling for publication their portraits with descriptions, sincere or insincere, of their pretended cures.

It seems as if no acuter instance could be found of the way in which, in our country, private greed is suffered to override the public good. For if a justification of these advertisements be sought, absolutely nothing can be alleged save the claim that every individual has a right to get rich along the lines of his own inventiveness, or of that of the cynical literary geniuses whom he may employ. The essays, the anecdotes, the elaborate accounts of symptoms, the portraits of sufferers, are a direct attack of the most efficacious sort upon the public health. They are meant to be such an attack; they have no other conceivable aim or intention than to produce panic, to beget in susceptible readers, by their incessant repetition, the fixed idea and apprehension of disease. Such fixed ideas and apprehensions are among the most potent morbific agents known; and the amount of hypochondriacal misery and actual disease caused by these suggestions would certainly, if it could be measured, prove almost incredibly great. The way in which a certain "kidney" nostrum, which played a pioneer's part in the evolution of these advertisements, was worked, was truly diabolical, and has hardly been rivalled since. And the advertisers have cut themselves off from replying that the reader has his protection in his own hands, for "no one need read these advertisements unless he will," since they have arranged that he shall read them whether he will or no, by their ingenious system of misleading headlines and sham introductions, that begin with something educational or literary and end with liver, nerves, or blood. We buy our newspapers because we need them for other reasons. We find every alternate column beginning with a "scare-head" that suggests momentous news, and we presently discover, coördinated with perhaps a change of ministry in England, the annexation of Hawaii, or the passage of a tariff bill, accounts of Mr. Mingo's kidneys, Mr. Hawkshaw's bronchi, or Mrs. Hecla's skin—on which the grotesque pictures of the sufferers set the seal. Like Ulysses, these worthies have become a part of all that we have met; and all experience is an arch where-through their entrails gleam as it were iridescently upon us, until the world looms to our imagination in a sort of catarrhal vapor, or as if bathed in a cancerous and hæmorrhoidal mist. Such is the education of our young people, and such the indecency of the background, or rather of the foreground, in the full sight of which we all are forced to live.

The evil is increasing with formidable rapidity. It has grown greatly in the past two years. I returned home last September after living fifteen months in countries where most matters here so articulate have not yet found a voice, and I remember that the first sight I got of the Boston *Herald* on the steamer-wharf made me involuntarily jerk back my head and catch my breath, as if a bucket of slops had suddenly been thrown into my face. How much farther the nuisance will go unless legislatively interfered with, it is impossible to predict. It may be a somewhat delicate matter to frame just the right bill, but it seems as if it must in any case be based on a restriction of the amount of space which a medical advertisement shall be permitted to take. In a limited number of lines, details of disease and panicky suggestions cannot be introduced. Being public enemies as deliberate and intentional as they are venomous, the authors of

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these advertisements should be treated as public enemies and have no mercy shown. The first steps towards such a society for agitation as I propose might well be made by the medical societies of the several States. The power of ideas over bodily conditions is now so solidly established as a fact, and the doctors have so honorably shown themselves in the character of preventers as well as in that of curers of disease, and are so well recognized as disinterested guardians of the public health, that they need have no fear, when the inevitable cry of professional rivalry and persecution goes up from those whose gains are menaced, that the community will take it up. *Some* day, through *some one's* exertion, the thing is sure to be brought to a stop. It is as certain as anything can be that a generation will come after ours, so conscious of spiritual forces and of health as a public ideal, that when, in the chamber of horrors of their historic museum, they look upon a newspaper of our day, framed upon the wall to show the régime under which our generation lived, they will refuse to believe their eyes, and will consider such a license given to private rapacity as something incredible that never could have been.—I am, sir, truly yours,

WILLIAM JAMES.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., January 22, 1894.

[Prof. James will be glad to learn of the existence of a New York "Act for the more effectual prevention of wanton and malicious mischief, and to prevent the defacement of natural scenery."—ED. NATION.]

THE WHITE CITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There has been some discussion during the past year as to whom is due the honor of having first applied the term "White City" to the World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago. As in Bach men discover, patent or latent, all forms of modern music, so in Emerson all modern ideas seem to be anticipated. Thus, in Emerson's lecture on "The Conservative," delivered in December, 1841, I find the following passage, one clause of which (I venture to italicize it) evidently has a prophetic claim to the priority of the disputed honor:

"For man is the end of Nature; nothing so easily organizes itself in every part of the universe as he; no moss, no lichen, is so easily born; and he takes along with him and puts out from himself the whole apparatus of society and condition *ex tempore*, as an army encamps in a desert, and, *where all was just now blowing sand, creates a white city in an hour*, a government, a market, a place for feasting, for conversation, and for love." N. H. D.

JAMAICA PLAIN, MASS., January 22, 1894.

"TOTE."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Lorenzo Dow's 'Journal,' third edition, Philadelphia, 1816, the Southern word "tote" is used in a manner which may indicate its original meaning; hence this communication. At page 173, describing his adventures in Georgia, in the year 1803, Lorenzo says: "I preached in George-town, and set out at eight at night for Augusta; and travelling nearly all night, I came to a camp where some negroes were *toting** tobacco to market." The italics and asterisk are Lorenzo's, and at the bottom of page 174 is the note:

"*The mode of toting tobacco to market is by rolling it in casks, with a wooden axle through the midst, on the ends of which are fastened the shafts for the horse to draw it by; 15 or 16 hundred weight may thus be pressed and carried to market."

As Lorenzo prints the word toting in italics, and adds the meaning in a footnote, it is not unlikely that the word "tote" originally meant this method of hauling tobacco. This is an illustration of the early use of the word in this country which may interest philologists.

F. E. M.

Notes.

THE well-known librarian, Mr. J. N. Larned of Buffalo, President of the American Library Association, has compiled a 'History for Ready Reference,' from the best historians, biographers, and specialists, in their own words. The work possesses a universal character, and is to be published by subscription through the C. A. Nichols Co., Springfield, Mass.; the first of the five volumes is on the eve of appearing. Precise references for all the passages quoted and topics treated will make this History a virtual index to a "select library of ten or twelve thousand volumes." Original historical maps, colored charts, tables of contemporaneous events, and "such a collection of the historical documents of the past and present as the reader may look for in vain elsewhere," are some of the promised attractions of this novel enterprise.

The second volume of Taine's 'Modern Régime' will soon be issued by Henry Holt & Co.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will publish immediately 'Ships that Pass in the Night,' a novel by Beatrice Harraden. They further announce 'Newton Booth of California: His Speeches and Addresses,' edited by Lauren E. Crane; 'Primary Elections; A Study of Methods for Improving the Basis of Party Organization,' by Daniel S. Remsen; and 'The Evolution of Woman: An Inquiry into the Dogma of her Inferiority to Man,' by Mrs. Eliza Burt Gamble.

'James Gilmour and His Boys,' by Richard Lovett, M.A., author of 'James Gilmour of Mongolia: His Letters, Diaries, etc.,' will soon be issued by the Fleming H. Revell Co. It is composed principally of letters from Gilmour to his two young sons while they were at school in England. Many of the letters are to be given *in facsimile*, and the whole will constitute a quaint and very touching work.

'Marcella' is the title of Mrs. Humphry Ward's forthcoming novel, to be issued by Macmillan & Co., who have also in press 'A Course in Experimental Psychology,' by Prof. J. McKeen Cattell of Columbia College.

Prof. Charles W. Shields of Princeton has written and read publicly on several occasions an essay on the four articles of church unity proposed by the American House of Bishops and the Lambeth Conference. The Scribners will issue it under the title of 'The Historic Episcopate.'

Any one who desires copies, in good print, of Magna Charta, the Declaration of Independence, and the Mecklenburg Resolves, may be recommended to procure the handsome volume, 'The Sons of the American Revolution: New York State Society, 1893–94,' prepared by Edward Hagaman Hall, historian and registrar of that society. He will find, thrown in, a roll of the members, with brief biographical sketches, sometimes of decided interest, accompanied by portraits, views, and facsimiles in many styles of art. There is an index to the Revolutionary ancestors mentioned, but no conspectus of the membership.

At the instance of Dr. Wm. Seward Webb, the correspondence and journals of his grandfather, Samuel Blachley Webb, an officer and prisoner of the Revolution, have been collected and edited by Worthington C. Ford, in three volumes, royal octavo. Col. Webb's part in the first exchange of prisoners as well as in the subsequent negotiations for a general exchange gives prominence and importance to this subject, while the value of his correspondence is attested by his connection with Silas Deane, Gen. Putnam, and Washington. The work is rich in portrait illustrations of a high grade. One hundred of the 350 sets printed are offered for sale to the public through Charles H. Burnett, 51 E. 44th St., N. Y.

One has often to observe a sensuous motive in the publications by bibliophiles, singly or associated, for bibliophiles, both in France and out of it; and this motive is suggested by the new-old edition of D. G. Rossetti's 'House of Life' which the young firm of Copeland & Day, Boston, bring out in a very handsome manner, and, as they say, "in its [1870] innocence and perfection." For various reasons, however, these sonnets and lyrics may be prized and enjoyed, and we do not say they are not worthy of so much typographic painstaking. The full-faced letter may be read without glasses, and harmonizes well with the floreated initials; but the affectation of giving no indention to overlapping lines makes an impediment to understanding and remembrance, of the sonnets particularly. The printer's colophon is an excellent device, and the publishers' mark is also to be praised as a design and for its use; but had it been reduced in scale we think we should have liked it better.

'The Centenary of Louisville' is the eighth of the luxurious quarto publications of the Filson Club of that city (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.). This historical essay by the president, Mr. Reuben T. Durrett, was read in 1880 before the Southern Historical Association, but was printed only in an abbreviated form. It is now expanded with notes and appendices, and forms a starting-point for the municipal history. There are portraits of the author, of La Salle, and of Gen. George Rogers Clark, the founder of the city. Mr. Durrett argues in favor of the year 1669 as the date of La Salle's visit to the Falls of the Ohio, but with a convenient assumption of low water and high water to suit the hypothesis; and he very positively assigns by conjecture to La Salle the famous iron hatchet unearthed at Shippingport in 1808 beneath the trunk of a sycamore tree, whose rings he diminishes in number in order to settle in his way the antiquarian dispute over the provenance of the tool.

The thin volume, 'Bills of Mortality, 1810–1849, City of Boston,' issued towards the close of last year from the Registry Department, is chiefly important as making accessible the mortuary records for the period in question originally published as official broadsides and then copied into the daily press. The main interest, however, lies in the reprint of Lemuel Shattuck's 'Essay on the Vital Statistics of Boston from 1810 to 1841,' which Mr. Whitmore, the Registrar, has wisely prefixed to the burial tables. This essay may still be read with profit; its historical scope in the matters of growth of population and epidemic diseases embraces early colonial days. The chapters on white and colored mortality, on the preponderance of females, on still-births, on infant mortality, on the effect of seasons on mortality, and seriatim on the causes of death, are curious and valuable in the light of the present day. Scarlet fever was first intro-

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duced into Boston in 1735, and in that and the following year 4,000 persons were sick with it, and one in thirty-five died. In 1792 Boston had about 18,000 inhabitants, of whom 10,655 were supposed to have had the smallpox when that scourge reappeared. All the rest took it except 262 who got out of town, and 221 who proved not susceptible to it.

The lectures and papers which form the subject of the volume entitled 'The Inventions, Researches, and Writings of Nikola Tesla,' by Thomas C. Martin (New York: the *Electrical Engineer*), represent the work of a young Servian electrical engineer now well known in this country as well as in Europe. Mr. Martin has played the part of a Boswell to the author, and is by no means behind his prototype in admiration for his subject. The work consists of four parts—on polyphase currents; Tesla effects with high-frequency and high-potential currents; miscellaneous inventions and writings; early phase motors and the Tesla oscillators. The second part, on currents of high frequency and high potential, is the one which has chiefly attracted public attention, and which seems to promise most for the future. The other parts relate mainly to motors of the kind known as alternators. While the work contains much that is original and suggestive, there is a general want of completeness about results. The experiments on currents of high frequency and potential were interesting and brilliant, but, so far as we can discover, have up to the present time led to nothing. The other papers are mostly made up of suggestions more or less ingenious, but, we believe, leading as yet to nothing definite. In the case of any scientific invention we need descriptions of apparatus actually constructed and used, and we want perfectly definite and reliable statements about the results obtained. We do not find them in the work before us, or at least to any but a small extent. Meantime, it is only fair to Mr. Tesla to say that much is expected from him, and that his own statements about his work are modest and unassuming.

Nearly fourteen years ago we noticed the second volume of Dr. Friedrich Ratzel's 'Die Vereinigten Staaten von Nord-Amerika,' a laborious and on the whole important work for the information of the author's countrymen. This second part, which he then entitled "Culturgeographie, unter besonderer Berücksichtichung der wirthschaftlichen Verhältnisse," he has worked over very thoroughly in the light of the last census, and now more curtly styles it "Politische und Wirthschafts-Geographie" (Munich: R. Oldenbourg). The scheme is substantially unchanged, but the strictly geographical section has been greatly developed, and under Population our negro problem has been distinctly set forth, especially in view of Mr. Bryce's having left it on one side, thus making, says Prof. Ratzel, "the impression not so much of a breach in his edifice as the absence of an entire wall." The author's good will to this country continues to be manifested, and American women will be gratified by what he has to say of their good looks, amiability, and ambition for culture, and the knightly courtesy shown to them by the other sex. He acknowledges assistance from many prominent American scholars and officials, and gives evidence of having followed closely the periodic press of the United States, if not always with a native's discrimination among his authorities. In addition to a few charts in the text (in Roman characters, by the way), there is a colored map of the United States ingeniously contrived to exhibit a variety of the larger factors in our civilization. And to the two-fold praise of a German be it said that there is an index as well as a table of contents.

The annual report of the Geological Survey of Canada for 1890–91, recently issued under the direction of Dr. Selwyn, consists of two heavy volumes with a package of maps. Explorations in the interior of the vast Canadian territory occupy a large number of pages, to which students of that little-known country should turn. The subject of perhaps the most general interest to geologists in this country is the account of the superposition of the Trenton limestone on the smooth surface of the Laurentian gneiss. An excellent photographic plate illustrates this remarkable memorial of an ancient land surface submerged beneath a hardly less ancient limestone-making sea. The report for 1888–89 may be referred to as containing a graphic description of the breaking up of the ice on one of the northward flowing rivers, the Liard, whose headwaters feel the influence of advancing spring while winter still lingers further down its course.

'Certain Climatic Features of the Two Dakotas' is the title of a large monographic report by Lieut. J. P. Finley of the Weather Bureau, called for by a resolution of Senator Pettigrew in 1892. Although prepared in the same year, its imprint is 1893. It is chiefly concerned with the droughts from which the Dakotan farmers have already suffered severely; the loss thus caused in 1887 and 1888 being estimated at $25,000,000 a year. The conclusion reached is, that while deficiency of precipitation is the first cause of droughts, the activity of the hot southerly winds, by which the ground is dried up, is an important second cause. Wind-breaks of trees are therefore recommended, and extensive irrigation is regarded as essential. It is implied that the forests on the Black Hills influence the precipitation there, although no demonstration of this very doubtful conclusion is offered. Tree-planting in the Dakotas must, however, be very useful in checking the winds close to the ground and thus diminishing evaporation.

The topographical survey of Connecticut, executed under the joint control of the U. S. Geological Survey and a local State commission, includes some thirty contoured sheets on a scale of about one mile to an inch (1:62,500). Another map of the whole State on two large sheets on a scale of about two miles to an inch (1:125,000) has just been prepared by the Geological Survey, with contours for every hundred feet of height. Although not on the same scale or in the same style as the reduced maps of New Jersey, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island, this two-sheet map of Connecticut makes a worthy member of the State-map series. It is printed in three colors: contours in brown, water in blue, and roads, boundaries, and names in black. The double-lining of the roads on a map of this scale does not seem desirable, as it gives them an undue prominence. Single black lines would be as easily understood, and would distract the eye less from the physical features expressed by the brown-contour lines and the blue streams, which certainly deserve the first emphasis in a topographical map.

Mr. Wm. Morris Davis, Professor of Physical Geography in Harvard University, is lecturing to the teachers of Rhode Island on the fundamental principles of this subject, drawing his illustrations from the State map, or from countries whose natural features are similar to those of Rhode Island or contrasting with them, etc.—instruction which must certainly make itself felt beneficially in the teaching of geography in the public schools.

The opening article of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for November is taken from a Russian official report upon the distribution of amber throughout the empire. From the accompanying map this deposit appears to be chiefly confined to a belt of country running northwest and southeast not far from the western frontier, though it is also found in the Caucasus, in Siberia, and at several places on the shores of the White Sea and Arctic Ocean. There are continuations of the accounts of the lakes of Celebes and the pampas of Argentina, together with a notice of Sir Thomas Elder's Australian exploring expedition of 1891-92, with a map. The December number contains an article on the distribution of the extremes of heat over the globe, with three charts showing the lines of equal maximum and minimum temperature and the mean absolute variations. There is also an interesting account of observations made in the ice-cave of Szilicze in Hungary, with a reasonable and simple explanation of its peculiar phenomena.

The London *Times* publishes a very suggestive paper read before the Colonial Institute by Miss Flora L. Shaw on the Australian outlook. The editorial comment upon it discloses the fact that this lady was the writer of the remarkable series of letters to the *Times* from the Cape and from Australia which have been published separately and have been favorably noticed in these columns. They were characterized by great descriptive power, clear statement of facts, and intelligent grasp of the subjects treated, whether political or industrial. The same qualities are displayed in this paper, in which Miss Shaw emphasizes the fact that there are two Australias—the temperate and the tropical—each with life, commerce, labor, and hence politics, cast in a different mould. In an interesting passage upon the fruit and wine industry of the south, she says that one of the most striking movements that are to be observed is the "tendency to place upon the land a higher class of intelligence than has ever before been associated with agricultural pursuits"; while in regard to the sugar plantations of the north she does not hesitate to say "that in no country which I have yet visited in any quarter of the globe is the manual laborer so well provided for, so liberally paid, or so carefully safeguarded from oppression, as the South Sea Islander employed in Queensland." The great needs of both sections of the continent are population to develop its marvellous agricultural and mineral wealth, and more and closer channels of communication between the separate colonies themselves as well as with the mother country.

From the table in the *Publishers' Circular* of the English publications for the past year it appears that there was a slight increase over the numbers for the previous year. The various classes of books are, however, not represented in a similar manner. There was a marked falling off, for instance, in theological works, novels, works on political and social economy, the arts, education and medicine. In juveniles there was an extraordinary increase as well as in miscellaneous works, while travels, history, and poetry show but slight relative changes.

—Senatorial courtesy is receiving an extension in many directions. There have just been issued as Senate Misc. Doc. No. 14 two addresses by Hon. James W. Savage (not a member of Congress), on Nebraskan history, delivered before the Nebraska Historical Society in 1880

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and 1885. An examination of these addresses fails to show any good reason why the United States Senate should print them, and, in point of time, something fresher might have been obtained if the Senate is going into the business of printing historical addresses of purely local interest. This issue was made on a resolution introduced by Senator Manderson, on December 11, 1893, that "the usual number of the pamphlets," etc., be printed "for the use of the Senate." The issue is certainly unusual, and introduces a practice that should be condemned from the start. Another questionable use of the franking privilege is making the wrapper serve to advertise political doctrine. The law provides that the words "Part of *Cong. Record*" be used on the wrapper of Congressional speeches; but what can be said of this?

PUBLIC DOCUMENT.

United States Senate.

Part of Cong. Record.

Maintenance of the Protective System Necessary to Secure National and Individual Prosperity.

Speech of
HON. J. N. DOLPH,
In the Senate, Dec. 18, 1893.

FREE.

Some enterprising tradesman may use the space for advertising his own wares.

—Time, according to the latest (ninth) published report (1891-'92) of the United States Civil-Service Commission, has brought about a decided increase in the chances for women who wish to enter the public service. The civil-service law practically went into effect in 1883; the report for 1884 stated that while the "law" made no distinction on account of sex, the "appointing power" had thus far used its discretion in the selection from the list of eligibles of less than one-sixth as many women as men, although a larger proportion of female than male competitors passed. During the fiscal year 1890-'91, 147 women were appointed to the classified departmental service (exclusive of 122 printer's assistants in the Bureau of Printing and Engraving); during the same period 776 men were appointed, or a proportion of women to men of somewhat less than 1 to 5. In the year 1891-'92 (the period covered by the present report) the number of women appointed in corresponding departments was 86, and of men 245, showing a proportion of women to men of a little more than 1 in 3, a very decided gain for women. While the Commission naïvely expresses itself as unable to account for this change of animus on the part of the appointing powers, it comments on the fact as one of general interest, and suggests that it "probably shows that the prejudice which has heretofore existed to some extent against the appointment of women to the classified service is gradually disappearing." When, however, the lists and tables of promotions are scrutinized, we feel that the mystery is partly explained. By executive order, December, 1891, promotions were put on the basis of the efficiency records kept in the departments and the close competitive tests which have supplemented these records; these "show that when women in the public service have a fair and even chance with the men they win their full share of the more lucrative and responsible positions; . . . it has been noticed that this is especially true with reference to those who have come into the service through the competitive examinations of the Commission."

—That the extension of the merit system is the main explanation of the remarkable increase in the number of women appointed and promoted in the classified civil service is disclosed by the elaborate tables incorporated in this report. At the civil-service examinations throughout the country a higher general average of marks is secured by women than by men, except in the more difficult technical examinations, where as a rule women do not compete—"when they do, the showing is decidedly in favor of the men." The earlier reports of the Commission did not always indicate the sex of competitors, but a table has been prepared which gives the ratio of women to the whole number examined, as well as their ratio to the whole number who passed the examinations for different branches of the service, from January, 1886, to June 30, 1892. We find that whereas the women were only 12 per cent. of the number examined, over 77 per cent. of women passed as against some 60 per cent. of the men. The men's record is improved, however (the general proportion being raised to 62 per cent.), if we add the examinations for the railway mail service, for which women are ineligible. About 69 per cent. pass of those who are examined for this branch of the postal service, not classified until 1889, and whose record since then may be cited as a typical instance of the value of reform. Indeed, within a few weeks the chairman of the Commission has stated to the President that the classification of the railway mail service "acted like magic in putting a nearly complete stop to changes for partisan reasons," and secured for 1893 "the complete absence of the unseemly exhibitions which accompanied the wholesale removal of railway mail clerks in 1889."

—It seems not inappropriate to mention in connection with these gains for women corresponding recognition of the rights of negro citizens, which the report also enumerates. Previous to the Harrison Administration there had never been a colored woman employed as a printer's assistant in the Bureau of Engraving and Printing; the first one was certified in February, 1890. Up to 1889 there was but one colored clerk in the Treasury Department. Since that time there have come into the Auditor's Department five colored clerks and a colored chief clerk, with a salary of $2,000. Of these, four have been promoted in grade and salary since first appointed. The Treasury has also two negro immigrant inspectors and a chief of division. In the Interior Department the Recorder of the General Land Office is a colored man at a salary of $2,000. There were employed at the end of 1892 in the executive departments and other branches of the Government service in Washington 2,393 colored people, whose annual salaries aggregated $1,370,623.98. Apparently merit has become an "open sesame" to two classes of citizens alike—those politically or socially disqualified by sex or by color.

—Miss Margaret Lee of St. Hugh's Hall, Oxford, has done a real service to students of the English drama by editing "Narcissus" (London: D. Nutt). The play, a burlesque of the story in Ovid's 'Metamorphoses,' was acted at St. John's College, Oxford, in 1602, as a Twelfth Night merriment, and is preserved in a single manuscript in the Bodleian Library. Though destitute of literary merit, "Narcissus" is in several respects a valuable document. It will probably attract most attention for its curious resemblance in one respect to Shakspere's burlesque "Pyramus and Thisbe": the well (*i. e.*, spring) in which Narcissus saw his fatally beautiful face is introduced as a *dramatis persona*. "Enter one with a bucket and boughs and grass," is the stage direction, and then the *Well* speaks, ending with:

"And thus, lest you should have mistook it,
The truth of all I to you tell:
Suppose you the well has a bucket,
And so the bucket stands for the well;
And 'tis, lest you should count me for a sot O,
A very pretty figure called *pars pro toto*."

Miss Lee has done her editorial work pretty well. The notes are disappointing. The introduction is better, but contains one curious oversight: the epigrams of which Miss Lee gives a specimen, and which she seems to think inedited, have long been in print.

—Some months ago a German tribunal in a provincial town sentenced a man to several months' imprisonment for lese-majesty, because he kept his seat while the Emperor's health was drunk. Recently a similar prosecution occurred in another town, but the accused was acquitted, the judge deciding that keeping one's seat under such circumstances could not be regarded in the eye of the law as an insult to his Majesty, unless words were used clearly implying an injurious intent. This view would doubtless be endorsed by the great majority of judicial authorities in Germany; but the number of judges willing to interpret the law in subserviency to the supposed wishes of an arrogant monarch is large enough seriously to imperil personal liberty. In Prussia "there's such divinity doth hedge a king" that even the brute beasts in his service must not be lightly spoken of. The captain of a battery stationed in Berlin recently condemned an artillerist to several hours of extra drill daily as a punishment for "Beschimpfung eines königlichen Dienstpferdes" (insulting a horse in the royal service) by calling the noble animal a "pig." Nothing is more common in the German army than for a subaltern to address a common soldier as a sloth, a hyena, or a rhinoceros, but we are not aware that this vituperative confusion of species has ever been punished or even reprimanded by a superior officer. It is not easy to conceive why "a horse in the royal service" should be supposed to be endowed with a more delicate sense of honor than a man in the royal service, unless it be that the former is the actual property of the king.

SYMONDS'S ART ESSAYS.

Essays, Speculative and Suggestive. By John Addington Symonds. New edition, in one volume. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1893.

Some of the essays in this volume which deal with plastic art are of peculiar interest to the belated reviewer, in that they are devoted to the extended setting forth of a doctrine more than once upheld in these columns and the only true doctrine, as we believe, of the relation of art to nature. This doctrine we have nowhere seen so elaborately stated or so carefully argued as in these essays, and we shall therefore devote the greater part of this review to an analysis of this argument and a statement of our points of agreement and disagreement with it, giving but a brief outline of the other contents of the volume.

The initial essay, on "The Philosophy of Evolution," aims to show how the evolutionary doctrine may aid man to reattain the religious spirit by showing him his brotherhood with nature, and inculcates a modernized pantheism.

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Then follow essays "On the Application of Evolutionary Principles to Art and Literature" and "On Some Principles of Criticism," which preach a modified Taineism, allowing more place for the judgment of good or bad in art than does Taine; and these again are followed by the group of essays we intend to consider at greater length. Then come "Notes on Style," which are taken up almost entirely with literary style, and which are rendered difficult of appreciation to the average reader by the fact that they are based on long, untranslated quotations in half-a-dozen languages; "Democratic Art," which deals mainly with Walt Whitman, for whom, it is known, Mr. Symonds cherished a somewhat incomprehensible admiration; "Landscape" and "Nature Myths and Allegories," in which our author's pantheism crops out again; two criticisms of Matthew Arnold's and Walter Pater's critical doctrines; "The Pathos of the Rose in Poetry," and "A Comparison of Elizabethan with Victorian Poetry." There is much of interest in all of these, much that is really "suggestive," but we shall be obliged to pass them by with this slight mention. The group of essays which we shall dwell upon comprises those on "The Provinces of the Several Arts," on "The Relation of Art to Science and Morality," on "Realism and Idealism" and "The Model," on "Beauty, Composition, Expression, Characterization," and on "Caricature, the Fantastic, the Grotesque"; and it is especially with the third and fourth that we shall have to deal.

The first two of this group of essays deal with well-worn ideas, and are sound expositions of uncontested truths. That each of the arts has its own methods of expression and its own proper content, and should not be expected to express other truths or other emotions than those which are proper to it; and that art in general has a place apart from science and morality while it yet cannot escape quite from either, and must, as an expression of man's spirit, say something to man's intellectual and moral nature as well as to his senses—this is their burden. Our only objection to Mr. Symonds's treatment here is that he does not sufficiently distinguish between the ostensible "subject" of a work of art and its true theme or motive, and assumes them to be one. This is not necessarily the case, and is often the reverse of true, and this is why the believers in art for art's sake and the believers in a meaning to be expressed in the language of art misunderstand each other so constantly. Art is a language, say these, and mere beauty of expression is not enough—you must have something to say. Assuredly. The form is all-important, say those, and we care nothing for the subject. And they too are right. For the real meaning of the artist, his true motive, can be expressed in no other language than his own. How Titian painted is the only question of importance about him, because what he felt before a beautiful nude body is inherent in his method of expression and is his message which cannot be translated. "Mere technique" cannot exist, for technique is expression, and the artist's soul is in his handling and not in the catalogue label of his picture. The form is all-important because "the style is the man," and Michelangelo interests us more than "The Creation of Adam." Even in literature the case is different only because the medium of expression, language, is the vehicle of thought for all of us, and seems almost thought itself; but in so far as writing is art, it is style that makes it so. We know a poet's thought only by its expression, and criticism of art is technical criticism, or it is nothing.

But the misunderstanding between the advocates of manner and the advocates of substance is nothing to the misunderstanding between the realist and the idealist, and both are based on distinctions without differences. That all art is both realistic and idealistic, and that the greatest art is that art which combines in the highest degree the utmost realistic power with the utmost idealistic feeling, is the doctrine that we have preached, in season and out of season, for many years, and it is this doctrine which Mr. Symonds sets forth in the essays we will now examine.

He confines himself to sculpture and painting, saying that "the principles arrived at will be found applicable in some measure to literature." Music and architecture he puts aside as not falling "within the sphere of these ideas." Sculpture and painting are in their very nature imitative arts, and "proceed by imitation of external objects." Realism, thus, "forms the substratum and indispensable condition of all figurative art." But it would be absurd to suppose that an imitation is the better for being a bad one. Nobody wants a portrait which is not like, or an image of a god "which is not as accurately adequate to the human form in which that godhead . . . might have resided, as knowledge and skill can make it." "The figurative arts, by the law which makes them imitate, are bound at every step of their progress to be realistic." But the artist soon finds absolute realism as impossible as absolute idealism. He cannot draw or paint truly. There is not only the limitation of his material, but the limitation of his personality. "No two men see the same woman or the same tree. Our perceptions are necessarily colored by those qualities which make us percipient and impressible individualities, differing each from his neighbor in a thousand minute particulars." Thus, willy-nilly, an artist is necessarily an idealist, and must show not what *is*, but what he sees and feels. And he soon becomes a conscious idealist, for, as he cannot get absolute truth, he must supply its place. He must convey the sense of life by exaggeration of some sort, for he cannot get motion. He must give the sense of light by some falsehood, for he cannot paint with light itself. Flesh will not pulse with blood upon his canvas, and he must make it more colored than it is in nature—marble will not breathe, and it must be more beautiful in form than reality, or it will not look so lovely. Hence it is that "Realism and Idealism are as inseparable as body and soul in every product of the figurative arts," and that "Idealism in art is the ultimate elaboration of that comparative inaccuracy and that imported subjective quality, both of which distinguish the most literal drawing from a photograph." And then Mr. Symonds hits upon the right example, too, "that perfect synthesis which makes the work of Pheidias exemplary," and quotes from Haydon his account of his first sight of the Elgin marbles and his rapture at discovering "the most heroic style combined with all the essential detail of actual life." These figures are, by general consent, the highest attainment of art, and, as we have said before now in these columns, their eternal example to artists is in their "combination of ideal power with a magnificent realism which is unequalled in any work, earlier or later."

Our only objection to this course of reasoning is that it does not dwell sufficiently upon composition—upon the *pattern-making* side of art. This omission is partly supplied in a later essay, but we do not think that Mr. Symonds ever quite recognizes the importance in art of the instinct which leads the savage to cut crossed lines on his paddle-blade. The instinct for ornamentation is as fundamental in humanity as that of imitation, and its base is love of *order*. Art is form-giving, *ordering*, and arrangement is its essence. It is ordered lines that the savage scratches on his paddle, it is ordered steps that make the dance and ordered sounds the song, and the frescoes of the Sistine are a developed pattern. The imitative instinct and the instinct for order work together from the beginning, and pure imitation might be painting or carving but not art, and pure pattern-making art but not painting or sculpture. Now the pattern-making instinct necessarily modifies natural fact in every smallest detail to make it fit into the preordained scheme of the whole, and supplies the lack of perfect imitation, which is impossible, by giving an obvious completeness and order to what seems the fragmentariness of nature. Here, we think, is the true key to the "ideal" in art. All plastic art is both realistic and idealistic, and the highest art is *both* in the highest degree. When art becomes too exclusively realistic, it ceases to be art and tends to become science. When art ceases to be realistic, it tends to become pure decoration. "Within this limit is relief enough," and between scientific draughtsmanship on the one hand and pure ornament on the other, all the artists of the world have found room to develop their special personality and their special style. But, to quote Mr. Symonds again:

"We might parody the famous saying of Pascal, and declare that the consummate artist must be a *réaliste accompli* and an *idéaliste soumis*. In other words, he must use the truest truth of nature, the most scientific grasp of actual form, in the service of imaginative symbolism. He must at one and the same time obey and control the model, departing at no point from its teaching, but utilizing its character and individuality for the further purpose of expression."

This is the whole gospel of art.

THE DIPLOMATS OF 1777.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773–1783. Vol. XVIII. Nos. 1644–1702. London: B. F. Stevens. 1893.

THE fifty-nine papers of vol. xviii. cover only the time between August 9 and September 26, 1777, but these seven weeks were important in the negotiations busily pending between France and England. With a few interesting exceptions, the strictly diplomatic communications go on uninterruptedly, and show an increased spirit of concession by the French ministry, and still bolder requests, almost demands, by the English, who were at this point encouraged by the surrender in July of Ticonderoga. The most important contention, at this juncture, on the part of Stormont, is in regard to the intended departure of 4,000 French troops to the West Indies, accompanied by five or six ships of the line. Mr. Forth, whom Vergennes, in a letter to Noailles (No. 1667), calls a "great debauchee," seems to have made the discovery of this plan, and also to have learned that the orders regarding this movement had been so ill conveyed by Sartine that the King had declared they should be "the last which M. Sartine would have to convey." Vergennes appears to have heard of Stormont's sources of information, for in another letter to Noailles (No. 1646) he intimates that the English ambas-

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sador must "ruin his Court in expenditure for spies," since he "gathers up all the petty absurdities which are retailed at the clubs, and perhaps even in the cafés." By August 13 Lord Stormont had worked himself into such a condition that he virtually urged upon Weymouth an "immediate rupture" in order that a seizure might be made of the whole French Newfoundland fishery, which, by a dilatory policy, in a few weeks might find time to escape a sudden move (No. 1649). Nor was Vergennes dead to the fact that suddenness had its advantages, for, in No. 1651, convinced that Stormont wanted war, he impressed upon Noailles that "twenty-four hours are precious in certain situations." A little later, on August 20, Stormont, after insisting upon a complete sifting of the motives which urge the increase of forces in the French West Indies, is at last almost persuaded that the ministry is really pacific.

In No. 1659 Stormont communicates in agreeable French to Vergennes the news of the surrender of Ticonderoga, assuming an interest which the latter "will be good enough to take in our success"—the nearest approach to humor thus far ventured by the serious Englishman. Immediately follows an interview with Maurepas (No. 1662), in which Stormont declares that he has "had declarations enough," and that he wants "no more words, no more promises"; but, nevertheless, as he writes to Weymouth, evidently baffled, he cannot "reduce their conduct to any system," and doubts if Maurepas has "any regular, uniform plan of deceit." He was, however, of the opinion that the French did not desire war, and therein he was probably right, because the significance to the French of the success or of the defeat of the insurgents was far from evident to the ministry, however clear the situation might seem to the King.

Another letter (No. 1663) from Beaumarchais relieves the general depression of the situation. Full of "honest indignation," he speaks of "terrible finance," as well he might at this time.

The dilemma of the French ministry, just referred to, is seen in a letter of Vergennes to Noailles (No. 1666) on Forth's mission. Forth represented only North and Mansfield, and his object was the return of English vessels taken by privateers. Could such return have been made under other circumstances, it was impossible as matters now stood, because, in the event of the Americans and English coming to terms, the French would only gain the enmity of one side, and would win no love from the other. If obliged to make easy terms with their colonies, the English, as Vergennes shows in his next letter to Noailles, would only find a fresh object of national hatred in France and Spain.

What amounts to an ultimatum is at last pressed by Stormont in No. 1670, when he asks of Maurepas an audience with the King. The same day, September 3, he confers with Vergennes, who mentions pointedly, in reply, the Circular Order to the Courts of Admiralty forbidding sale of prizes, and also another order to the Procureur-Général of the Admiralty Court to prosecute violations of this Circular Order; he would not make promises, or at least evaded the suggestion by Stormont that he should sequester or deliver English vessels already in port, but he did, however, admit that the strengthening of the forces in the West Indies was done at the desire of the Court of Spain. Pertinent to this last admission are the two cipher despatches (with decipher) of September 4, from the Marquis d'Ossun, the French ambassador to Spain, in the second of which it is intimated that recent English demands seem to the Spanish Court both minatory and insulting to France (Nos. 1672, 1673).

The most spirited despatch of the volumes is No. 1674, from Stormont to Weymouth, relating a conversation with Vergennes over the increment of the French fleet in the West Indies. When it came to the question of prizes, Vergennes said, or Stormont states that he said, it was his intention to get rid of "ces gens-là, et de chasser cette Vermine."

Forth's mysterious comings and goings—his frequent embarkings at Dieppe or at Brighthelmstone and other movements—are chronicled in the next number (1675) by Noailles, who characterizes him as "very fit to undertake commissions which may be disowned in case of non-success." Vergennes, on his part, writing to Noailles a little later, points out with obvious truth that the forcing an act of complaisance from France would really prove a damage to the prestige of England, and that the retaliatory measure of sending English troops also to the West Indies might be the very thing which France most wanted. To this latter proposition he says, most graciously, that he has no objection: "Every one can do as he likes in his own house!" Noailles in return (No. 1683) offers a delightful bit of French address, in recapitulating to Vergennes the whole attitude of France to England as polite, gracious, and yet ready to be firm. He cites an anecdote of Lord Sandwich, who some years previous had "let drop a very true remark in saying that none but novices could be pardoned for counting on promises given here [the court of London]."

Stormont (No. 1687) drops, for the moment, statecraft and descends to gossip, derived doubtless from spies. Beaumarchais, he hears, has threatened Sartine as being in his power, but is promptly told that if he lets slip such an expression again, he is to be shut up for the rest of his days. Of Franklin, Stormont goes on to say "he can assume any shape, and nothing is so natural to him as artifice and fraud." Remembering the sources of which Stormont did not hesitate to avail himself for information, and contrasting with this Franklin's perfect openness of conduct, however adroit he may have been in keeping perfectly silent when silence was best, we must fairly admit this remark of Stormont to be one more of his rare indulgences in jesting. His irritation may have been excited by news which he repeats in his next (No. 1688), dated September 17, 1777, to the effect that Vergennes has signified to Franklin and Deane that the Court "has now taken its Resolution for War, which Resolution will show itself soon." Stormont's last important despatch to Weymouth (No. 1697), on September 24, reveals much of the secret sources of his information; he speaks of La Fargue as mentioned in his last confidential letter (probably No. 1696, which is "cancelled," is the very letter). Stormont also speaks with seeming certainty of Franklin's and Deane's growing dissatisfaction with France, especially as regards the privateers. Following this is the "Memorial of the American Commissioners to the Count de Vergennes and Count d'Aranda" (No. 1698), an important document and one never before printed. In connection with this "Memorial" the letter of the Comte de Lauraguais (No. 1691) to Vergennes is of value. He tells, in a somewhat confused way, of a supper with Franklin, Deane, and Lee. "When our good wines had somewhat excited the Doctor," Franklin went on to say something not very distinct, but very good-natured, and ended by offering France the English colonies! Deane and Lee, on the other hand, somewhat reproached France for dilatoriness. The tenor of the Count's letter is to show that England really had more interest in getting control of the French West Indies than in conquering America.

Nos. 1658, 60, 68, 77, 85, 86, conclude the papers captured from the *Lexington*, off Ushant, on September 19, 1777, by Lieut. Bazely of the cutter *Alert*, whose official report to the Secretary of the Admiralty forms No. 1695. A docket of the twelve papers taken makes No. 1689 of this volume. The lot, as a whole, is not a rich "take," for the more important documents were all thrown overboard; Nos. 1677 and 1685, however, were letters to Capt. Johnson from the brave but unfortunate Wickes, who was drowned in the *Reprisal*, off the Banks in 1778.

Two letters, Nos. 1665 and 1693, are from Col. Philip Skene, "Burgoyne's evil genius," as he has been called, to the Earl of Dartmouth. As usual he lauds Burgoyne extravagantly.

One of the interesting features of this volume is a letter (No. 1682) from that sourest of men, Alexander Wedderburn, to William Eden. Replying to some strictures on the limited authority accorded to the management of the royal forces in America, Wedderburn says of recent personal news from New York, that "the peculation which is visible there is very outrageous, that the Hospitals are in a shocking condition, that the Howes grow rich, and that they are charged with Procrastination in order to end the war slowly and by Treaty." However, he concludes flippantly, "Tout va au mieux dans ce meilleur des mondes possibles."

There is a variant of a Franklin anecdote in No. 1648. Lenoir, in giving further details of Hodge's arrest, says that Franklin, on hearing that Stormont had circulated a report that the Americans had been beaten with a loss of 4,000 men, remarked, "Truth is one thing, and Stormont another" (*La vérité et le Stormont sont deux*). Parton, who always makes the best of a story, has it: "It is not a truth, it is only a Stormont."

Reality versus Romance in South Central Africa. By James Johnston, M.D. With fifty-one full-page photogravure illustrations from photographs by the author and map. Fleming H. Revell Co. 8vo, pp. 353.

THIS is an attempt to give a truthful picture of South Central Africa as it appeared to one who travelled through it with a special object in view. Dr. Johnston, a Jamaican physician, determined to learn by personal observation whether the negroes of his island could be profitably employed as lay assistants to white missionaries in Africa. With this single motive he crossed the continent from the Portuguese possessions on the west coast by way of the Zambesi River, Mashonaland, and Lake Nyasa, visiting all the Protestant mission stations on his route. His journey of forty-five hundred miles, through regions inhabited by numerous hostile tribes, though marked by no special incident, is deservedly memorable from the fact that he never fired a shot in anger or self-defence, nor lost a carrier by death—a record probably unique in the annals of African travel, and testifying to great tact and patience in dealing with the natives, as well as unremitting care for his men. It is evident that he undertook his journey with impressions of the extent and success of African missions which personal observation prov-

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ed to be false; and at its close he frankly confesses that at present there is no opening for the Jamaicans in the region which he visited.

This failure of his hopes, together with his disillusion in regard to the prosperity of the missions, has doubtless colored his account more than he is aware or possibly intended. He describes the belt of the continent through which he passed as, with a few exceptions, a comparatively barren wilderness, whose fertility has been greatly exaggerated. Its climate is pestilential, and a white man can live in it only by the greatest care. The missions, even the most prosperous, the American in the west and the Scotch in the east, have not got beyond the initial stage of laying the foundations for a permanent work. With righteous indignation he denounces those missionaries and societies who have published flattering reports of impossible successes, or withheld the unpromising truth for fear of "discouraging contributors." In vigorous terms he brands the so-called self-supporting missions, those established on the "faith alone" plan—an idea largely countenanced in this country—as absolutely mad enterprises, foredoomed to failure, and which have already cost many valuable lives. The substantial truth of all this cannot be doubted, especially considering the fact that Dr. Johnston is a devoted supporter of missions, though regarding them with a certain hard-headed Scotch common sense. Still, it should be remembered that the impressions of a mere traveller, however shrewd and observing, are not always the most truthful representations of permanent conditions, and it may very possibly be that the state of Central African missions is more encouraging than it appears to be in these gloomy pages.

A considerable part of the book is taken up with the recital of the ordinary experiences of African travel; and though the author penetrated some unexplored regions, he contributes little to our knowledge of them, their resources, or their inhabitants. An interesting account, however, is given of the chief of the Barotse, a native tribe on the upper Zambesi, a man of more than common intelligence and capacity, who is convinced of the ability of his people "to learn the various arts and become wise like Europeans. He is by no means an idler himself, much of his time being spent in wood-carving, with very primitive tools, turning out bowls and other dishes of wonderful symmetry, and exhibiting exceptional skill and taste." Dr. Johnston prints a remarkable letter which he received from this African king, hotly accusing the British South African Company of some very questionable sharp practice in respect to a treaty which its agent induced him to sign under false pretences.

Dr. Johnston passed through the territory of another tribe whose king, the well-known Khama, he characterizes as "a noble example of what Christianity and civilization can do for the African." Khama's new capital, Palachwe, was suffering at the time of his visit in March, 1892, from an attack of malarial fever, due to its unhealthy situation and to its unsanitary condition resulting from the habits of the natives. In commenting upon this, Dr. Johnston expresses his surprise that the king, who is so strenuous in prohibiting the sale of liquor to his people, should be so indifferent or blind to other dangers to which they are exposed from their manner of life.

"He lives in one round Kaffir hut himself, and his people must aspire no higher; hence we found whole families with grown-up sons and daughters herded together promiscuously in their small round grass and mud hovels. In no instance have we seen the semblance of a partition, not even a bit of calico hung up to divide the sleeping-places, while immorality is more brazen-faced than among the most uncivilized we have met hitherto."

Mashonaland finds but little favor with this writer as a farming country. "No one," he says, "looking out on the dreary wastes we have traversed during the last forty-five days, could hope to earn even a bare living from the arid soil." So desolate is a part of it that he travelled for twenty-three days without seeing more than a single native village. In Salisbury, bankruptcy was "the order of the day," and the deepest discouragement prevailed among the miners. The only thriving business seemed to be the liquor trade, for "out of a hundred wagons now on the road to Salisbury seventy carry an average of two thousand bottles of intoxicating liquor each."

In one respect Dr. Johnston's book surpasses all other accounts of Africa which we have seen, viz., in the remarkable excellence of the numerous photogravure illustrations, from photographs taken by himself, which it contains. They give the best idea of mission stations, native villages, and especially of the natives themselves, which we have ever obtained from pictures. Some of the representations of scenery, as of the Victoria Falls and of Livingstonia on Lake Nyasa, are of great beauty. A good map of south Central Africa adds to the usefulness of this valuable though depressing book, which we commend to the thoughtful attention of all who are interested in African missions.

Sam Houston, and the War of Independence in Texas. By Alfred M. Williams. With Portrait and Maps. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893.

We can well understand that Mr. Williams has found it no easy task to write a Life of Sam Houston which should fulfil the requirement demanded by Schopenhauer in a biography—that it should be more interesting than the history to which it renders service, and that to this end it should never subordinate the biographical element to the historical. The biographer admits that the limitations of Houston's character must forbid us to reckon him "among the world's great men," yet he acted a foremost part in the dark and bloody drama which has passed into history as the "War of Independence in Texas." If, in the period of pioneer adventure and of internecine feud between Mexican and American on our southwestern border, he had had all the martial qualities of a Siegfried, he as yet stands too near our epoch to have gathered around his brow the nimbus which in the haze of a distant past has settled on the head of the German hero in the Nibelungenlied. Indeed, the elements of character were so crude and so coarsely mixed in Houston that, even when we regard him simply as "a type of his time and circumstances," we find it impossible to fuse those elements into the symmetry of a heroic figure, albeit that he shared with Austin in the "glory" of founding the "Lone Star Empire," and that, at one time, he fed his fancy and pricked his ambition with vast and imperial schemes of a dominion extending from Oregon down the Pacific coast to the Gulf of Mexico, with Texas for the pivot of the "amalgamating" movement. To this coalition the Rocky Mountains were to interpose no barrier. The glory of the United States was to pale before the rival empire on the Pacific. Nothing short of "annexation" could prevent the fateful decree of "Manifest Destiny." In fact, the briefest retrospect of Sam Houston's career will suffice to show that he was much more at home when leading his band of restless and valiant adventurers, who never valued their lives at a pin's fee, than when he dipped into the future with visions of a constructive statesmanship far removed beyond his ken.

Born in Rockbridge County, Va., on the 2d of March, 1793, young Houston received only the slenderest rudiments of education in an "Old Field School." Placed as a clerk in a country store, he soon absconded and identified himself with the Cherokee Indians. Deserting his Indian tribesmen under stress of debt for powder and trinkets, he returned to such "civilization" as was accessible in the Tennessee mountains, and, cutting "a sour-wood stick" as the baton of his pedagogical office, he taught school for a season. When he was only twenty years old, he enlisted as a private in the United States army. He soon rose to the rank of ensign. He took part, under Gen. Jackson, in the battle of To-ho-pe-ka in 1814, and was severely wounded. He was appointed a subagent of the Cherokees in 1817. He resigned this office in dudgeon because of a rebuke received from John C. Calhoun, then Secretary of War, and because of false charges lodged against him by men who were smuggling slaves into Florida, and whose nefarious traffic he had obstructed. He next studied law and was admitted to the bar. In 1823 he was elected to the United States House of Representatives from the Ninth District in Tennessee. In 1826 he fought a duel with Gen. William White on what his biographer calls "a notable duelling-ground by the name of Linkumpinch, just across the Tennessee line"—in Kentucky. In 1827 he was elected Governor of Tennessee. In 1829 he married a Tennessee lady, but she left him three months after the bridal, and returned to her father. The causes of this domestic *esclandre* are not known. To hide his mortification Houston buried himself in the tribal seclusion of his old friends, the Cherokees, among whom he soon took to himself a squaw-wife, "after the Indian fashion." On the occasion of a visit to Washington in 1832, he assaulted the Hon. William Stanberry in the open street for words spoken on the floor of Congress deemed derogatory to his honor as an Indian contractor or agent. Arraigned before the bar of the House for this ruffianly violence, he was released with only "a mild and perfunctory reprimand" by the Speaker, Andrew Stevenson of Virginia. Returning to his clansmen, he opened among them a trading-post, and sank to such a low depth of degradation, from his drinking habits, that he received from them the cognomen of "Big Drunk."

He left the Indians and went to Texas in 1832, at a critical juncture in the history of that Mexican province. Its American settlers were meditating a revolt from the Mexican confederacy. John Quincy Adams, while President of the United States, had aroused Mexican jealousy against the American colonists by proposing to purchase the territory which they were now occupying. Gen. Jackson was known to be still more eager in these designs of annexation. In 1833 the Texan settlers determined to organize the territory into a State and to petition the central Government for a peaceful separation. Hence the beginning of the intestine feud. The first shock of arms took place in 1834. Then followed, in quick succession, the capture of San Antonio, the fall of the Alamo, the massacre of Goliad, and the decisive battle of San Jacinto, by which

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Texan independence was secured. Houston was installed as President of the new republic in 1836. He kept watch and ward against Mexican incursion. He pacificated the neighboring Indian tribes. Building again the family altar by marrying a second wife in 1840, he renounced, through her influence, his habits of drinking and swearing. He was reëlected President in 1841. He favored the annexation of Texas to the United States, and adroitly played his cards to this end by dallying with threats of now an English and now a French protectorate.

On the consummation of annexation in 1844, he was naturally chosen, with Gen. Rusk, to represent the State at the national capitol. On entering the Senate, he provided himself, says the biographer, "with a supply of cypress shingles, and filled his waste-basket during the debates with the shavings that curled from under his sharp knife." When he went to church, his shingle and knife helped him to endure the tedium of the sermon. When he took part in the debates of the Senate, it was always on the side of moderation where slavery was concerned. He opposed the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, and defended the New England clergymen who protested against that breach of public faith. He opposed secession, but yielded at last to the torrent which swept him off his feet. He was Governor of Texas at the time the ordinance of secession was passed. Refusing to take the oath of allegiance to the Southern Confederacy, he was deposed from office. President Lincoln offered him the commission of a major-general in the Federal service, but he declined it. Henceforth he was literally "a man without a country," and he could but wait amid the thickening shadows till his change came. He died July 26, 1863, at a time when his dark forebodings of Confederate disaster and overthrow had been confirmed by the fall of Vicksburg.

Passing from the biography of Sam Houston to the history of the "War of Independence in Texas," we may say that it is concisely told by Mr. Williams. The materials he has selected and the authorities he has consulted are ample for the outline sketch which is all that he could undertake in preparing an historical framework for his biographical portrait. We could wish, however, in the interest of literary accuracy, that more attention had been paid to the proof-reading of the volume. Such a leading character in the annals of Texas as David G. Burnet is doomed (by the proof-reader) to have his name spelled now in one way and now in another. A long account of Houston's "conversion," as given by his pastor in Washington, the Rev. G. W. Samson, D.D., is credited to the "Rev. G. W. Simpson," who reappears in the index with still another *alias* for his Christian name. The index at other points is marred by misprints. April 11, 1844, instead of April 17, 1844, is given as the date of the famous "Raleigh letter" which Henry Clay wrote against the annexation of Texas, to the confusion of his Presidential hopes.

Civilization during the Middle Ages, especially in relation to Modern Civilization. By George Burton Adams, Professor of History in Yale University. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894. 8vo.

Historians may be roughly divided into two classes—those who laboriously delve into the original sources for the purpose of elucidating exhaustively some special subject, and those who gather together and coördinate the results of others' labor and reproduce as a whole the story of the past. Both classes are necessary and both are deserving of all honor, although the patient toil of the indefatigable seeker after facts is less apt to win popular applause than the work of him who can arrange those facts in a striking whole and illuminate them with brilliant generalizations and captivating theories. Such a book as that which Prof. Adams has laid before us could not be produced by a writer of the former class, for a lifetime would be insufficient to acquire at first hand the details of the history of the inner life of all Europe from the fifth to the fifteenth century. It is not, of course, that the author attempts to present all these details, but an accurate familiarity with them is essential for his object—the presentation of the philosophy of European history, tracing the relations of causes to effects and the interaction of the multifarious factors which have advanced or retarded civilization and determined the fate of nations.

Only wide reading and considerable thought could have enabled Prof. Adams to perform his task. To what extent the thought is original it would be difficult to say, for he is chary of references, and a thorough acquaintance with modern historians, especially the Germans, would be necessary to determine how far he has thought out the problems for himself and how far he has been influenced by his guides. One of the pitfalls in the path of those who work at second hand is that they are apt to be insensibly influenced by the views of those whom they follow and whose statements they have insufficient means of controlling. In general, Prof. Adams seems to have escaped this danger, and to have given a fairly accurate though uneven account of the modifications through which the institutions of Europe passed during the mediæval period. In some instances he has evidently been misled, as when (p. 234) he tells us, of the forgery of the False Decretals, that "its immediate object was to defend the independence of the bishop against the claims of the archbishop"—a view to which a careful study of the documents would scarce have brought him, especially as it was an archbishop, Riculfus of Mainz, who was the sponsor of the forgeries and busied himself with their dissemination. So a personal acquaintance with the records of the period would have preserved him from the error (p. 273) of classing the Manichean Albigenses with the evangelical Waldenses as making a "clearer demand . . . in regard to practical Christianity." It is perhaps not so easy to explain his assigning (p. 269) the close of the crusades to the expedition of St. Louis to Tunis in 1270, and explaining their abandonment by a change in the "feelings and judgments and desires" of the people, so that "the working mind of Europe could no longer be moved." In fact, among the impelling motives of the crusaders he somewhat strangely omits to mention the attractions of the indulgences so lavishly granted. In the terrors of the mediæval eschatology these continued to be eagerly sought for, but they became vulgarized by being peddled everywhere for money, notwithstanding which they could still for nearly two centuries at any time arouse anew the crusading spirit; if it was no longer directed against the infidel, this was because the Holy See found it more profitable to employ it against enemies nearer home. The expedition led in 1396 by Jean sans Peur to destruction at Nicopolis and the repeated crusades directed against the Hussites, in one of which there was an English contingent under Cardinal Beaufort, sufficiently show that Prof. Adams's view of the period and causes of their decline needs correction. Similar modification is required in the exaggerated estimate of the abasement of the papacy consequent on the so-called Captivity of Avignon. It was by no means, as asserted on p. 398, "almost as sudden and final a destruction of the imperial power of the Popes as the ruin of the Hohenstaufen family had been of the imperial position of the German kings." The proceedings at Rense and Frankfort in 1338 which are cited in support of this have no such supreme significance as is here attached to them. But a few years later, the "priests' Emperor," Karl IV., was elected through papal influence and subjected the Empire to the Church more fully than it had ever previously been.

Partly, no doubt, such lapses may be attributed to the dogmatic tone which is almost inevitable in the attempt to compress within four hundred and fifty pages a sketch of the course of civilization in Europe during a thousand years. Yet this dogmatism, customary in a teacher addressing his students, is carried too far in a book intended for the general public. There is throughout an ease in explaining how everything was the necessary result of what preceded it that is sometimes misleading, inasmuch as it ignores the fact that many questions are still *sub judice*, and that many others are of a more complex character than they are here represented. To accept the *ipse dixit* of any one we must feel implicit reliance not only on his learning, but also on the calm sobriety of his judgment, and this reliance is shaken by inconsiderate remarks which sometimes surprise the cautious reader, as when (p. 172) we hear of "men who would be regarded as weak sovereigns even to-day, when, in general, a stupid king or an insane one is as good as any or even better," or when (p. 397) we come across a remarkable statement about "the forces of modern politics which have reduced the papacy to political insignificance"—an insignificance which Bismarck and Caprivi, Carnot and King Humbert have strangely never recognized. It was not without cause that Bismarck pronounced Leo XIII. the ablest statesman in Europe.

Prof. Adams's style is rather negligent, and at times somewhat obscure. There would seem to be loose thinking as well as loose writing in the assertion (p. 289) that "the Portuguese were able to buy in India several times cheaper than the Venetians in Egypt," and in the apparent self-contradiction involved in the observation (p. 279), "The truth is, the various lines of progress are so interwoven, as has already been said, advance in any is so dependent upon advance in all, that it is not possible to say that any one of them, either in theory or in fact, is a necessary condition of the others."

The Last Day of the Carnival. By J. Kostromitin. Translated from the Russian. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

The fly-leaf of this little volume bears the announcement: "This work is the first of a series, in which the author intends to give, in a literary form, an important account of present social and political life in Russia." From internal evidence, the author would seem to be a Russian who does not live in Russia, and the translation was made by another Russian similarly situated. The English is, at times, of such a sort that one is inclined to suspect that the author must have assumed all the responsibility of the proof-reading and supplied the money for printing, in his eagerness to get po-

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litical tracts, in the form of stories which embody his views, before the public. Certainly, neither style, language, nor literary skill is what we should expect in a book for which Mr. Unwin assumed financial and other responsibility. Yet there is a rude power, a considerable talent of description, which will be more agreeable and comprehensible, no doubt, in later works, when the author learns to be less abrupt, to tone down his bald political sermons, or cast them into the narrative, and to tell his story straight through once, instead of making it lap in incoherent lengths without order.

As the title indicates, it is the history of the last day before the austerities of the Russian long fast begin. The scene is laid in a country town, where every one is bored to death with individual and collective stupidity. If we are to believe the writer, gambling, deep potations, and coarse practical jokes are the only known means of relieving the monotony of existence. The picture he draws is distinctly repulsive. The frankness with which the disagreeable details are set forth is responsible for much that seems, at first sight, exaggerated. Setting aside that frankness, we can see, on reflection, that the foundation facts are not very different from those which underlie an idle society in any country, in any town, large or small, where material pleasures alone are pursued with ardor. In this case, we are called upon to make allowances for people who have no library, it is stated—but who are too lazy to send for books or to read them if they had them, we are bound to add; who are debarred from the discussion of revolutionary ideas, but who, evidently, say and do pretty much as they please after all. It is not probable that this book will be popular, or even that it will fulfil its author's intention of instructing the public. One must have lived in Russia, must know the language, and be intimately acquainted with the character and peculiarities of the people and of these foreign Russians, in order to discriminate between the caricature and the truth here, to comprehend the irregular style, and to gather an idea of the author's meaning, except when he is engaged in downright preaching, most inartistically interpolated. But, for such people, the book has no special value, because all the facts, political and social, are already old to them. The rest of the world will find it a puzzling nightmare.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ambros, W. A. The Boundaries of Music and Poetry. G. Schirmer.
Appleton, Robert. Violet, the American Sappho. Boston: Franklin Publishing Co.
Baker, W. S. Early Sketches of George Washington. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Ball, Rev. W. D. Evolution in Science and Revolution in Religion. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Barrows, Rev. J. H. The World's Parliament of Religions. Vol. II. Chicago: Parliament Publishing Co.
Beckman, Ernst. Pax and Carlino. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Conway, M. D. The Writings of Thomas Paine. Vol. I. Putnams. $2.50.
Davis, J. P. The Union Pacific Railway: A Study in Railway Politics, History and Economics. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $2.
Demarest, T. F. C. The Rise and Growth of Elevated Railroad Law. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $3 50.
Denison, Dr. Charles. Climates of the United States in Colors. Chicago: W. T. Keener Co. $1.
Eastman, Edith V. Musical Education and Musical Art. Boston: Damrell & Upham. $1 25.
Famous Adventures and Prison Escapes of the Civil War. The Century Co.
Garnett, Richard. Poems. London: Mathews & Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.50.
Hepworth, G. H. They Met in Heaven. E. P Dutton & Co. 75 cents.
Hobbes, J. O. A Bundle of Life. J. S. Tait & Sons. 50 cents.
Jones, J. L. A Chorus of Faith as Heard in the Parliament of Religions. Chicago: Unity Publishing Co. $1.25.
Klein, Prof. Felix. Lectures on Mathematics. Macmillan. $4.
Ladd, Prof. G. T. Psychology. Descriptive and Explanatory. Scribners. $4.50.
Lang, Andrew. St. Andrews. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Le Gallienne, Richard. The Religion of a Literary Man. London: Mathews & Lane; New York: Putnams. $1.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXXVII. Masquerier—Millyng. Macmillan. $3.75.
McCosh, Rev. James. Philosophy of Reality: Should it be Favored in America? Scribners. 75 cents.
Mercer, Rev. L. P. Review of the World's Religious Congresses. Rand, McNally & Co 50 cents.
Merriam, G. S. A Symphony of the Spirit. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Nichols, A. B. Freytag's Karl der Grosse. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Parker, Rev. Joseph. None Like It: A Plea for the Old Sword. F. H. Revell Co. $1.25.
Ribot, Prof. T. The Diseases of Personality. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Somoano, José S. Costumbres Yankees: Viajes por la América del Norte. Mexico: *El Correo Español*.
Stendhal's L'Abbesse de Castro. Paris: Lemerre; New York: Amblard & Meyer. 60 cents.
Stevens, B. F. Facsimiles of MSS. in European Archives relating to America. Vol. XIX. London: B. F. Stevens.
Strahan, S. A. K. Suicide and Insanity: A Psychological and Sociological Study. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Strong, Gen. J. C. Wah-kee-nah and her People. Putnams. $1.25.
Stuhlmann, Franz. Mit Emin Pascha ins Herz von Afrika. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer.
Sweet, Rev. C. F. A Champion of the Cross: The Life of Rev. J. H. Hopkins. James Pott & Co. $3.
Tennyson, Alfred. The Coming of Arthur. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 12 cents.
The Banker's Almanac and Register and Legal Directory of 1894. Homans Publishing Co.
The *Converted Catholic*. Vol. X. 1893. James A. O'Connor.
The Dogs and the Fleas. By One of the Dogs. Chicago: Douglas McCallum. $1.
The Partridge. [Fur and Feather Series.] Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Thompson, Francis. Poems. London: Mathews & Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.50.
Vaux, Baron de. Ecuyers et Ecuyères: Histoire des Cirques d'Europe. 3d ed. Paris: J. Rothschild.
Verne, Jules. Michel Strogoff. Henry Holt & Co. 70 cents.
Warren, Prof. F. M. Selections from Victor Hugo: Prose and Verse. Henry Holt & Co. 70 cents.
Wawn, W. T. The South Sea Islanders and the Queensland Labor Trade. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $4.
White, E. E. School Management. American Book Co. $1.
Wilder, Prof. B. G. Physiology Practicums: Explicit Directions for Examining Portions of the Cat, and the Heart, Eye and Brain of the Sheep. Ithaca, N. Y.: The Author. $1.

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